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GUIDE

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THE SOCIAL WORKERS' GUIDE

A HANDBOOK OF INFORMATION AND COUNSEL
FOR ALL WHO ARE INTERESTED
IN PUBLIC WELFARE

EDITED BY

REV. J. B. HALDANE, M.A.

HON. SEC. OF THE SOUTHWARK DIOCESAN SOCIAL SERVICE
COMMITTEE

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PREFACE

THE aim of this book is to gather the best and most recent information upon many subjects in which Social Workers are interested into an arrangement by which it is readily accessible for reference. It is hoped that it may be found useful by workers in whatever form of social work they may be engaged, whether in urban or rural districts. It is being recognised in an increasing degree that service on behalf of those whose lives are deprived of many of the joys and even necessities of life requires not only a kind heart but also an instructed mind. An attempt has been made to gather into a small space the knowledge and experience of experts and to place it at the disposal of workers, who may desire to continue their inquiries further in the books and under the auspices to which reference is made in many of the articles. Contributors have been requested to avoid any expression of opinion on controversial topics—not because it might not be of interest but because there is already an extensive literature devoted to the discussion of subjects of social reform. It is believed that there may be a welcome for a book showing—naturally with some omissions at the first attempt—the vast amount of good work already in hand, and the many opportunities available for those who seek to ameliorate the lot of their less fortunate fellow-men. The endeavour has been made to state facts and to support them, as far as possible, by reference to substantial authority. It is hoped that the system of cross references may serve not only to guide the reader to the information of which he is in need, but also to direct attention to subjects which are not already familiar. So far as the work of societies is concerned the book is confined to reference to larger institutions and those which possess some special feature capable of more

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general application, as information about local charities and institutions is already available in the *Annual Charities Register and Digest*, issued by the Charity Organisation Society, and similar publications confined to localities or special subjects.

The Editor desires to acknowledge cordially the ready and loyal co-operation which he has received from the contributors whose names are given below, and the assistance derived from the valuable and sympathetic advice of several experienced workers, including the Ven. C. E. Escreet, Archdeacon of Lewisham, Chairman of the London Branch of the Christian Social Union, and formerly Chairman of the Southwark Diocesan Social Service Committee, and Dr. T. N. Kelynack, Author of *The Drink Problem in its Biological Aspect*, *The National Health Manuals*, etc., and Editor of *The Child*, and *The British Journal of Inebriety*.

The Editor, to his regret, is not allowed to mention by name some of those who have contributed from their official knowledge and experience articles in the book showing the share of the State in the solution of some social problems. It is hoped that they may be of special interest and utility in their close correlation with the record of voluntary endeavour.

June, 1911.

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Social Workers' Guide

Able-bodied Paupers.—(See also INDOOR RELIEF, OUTDOOR RELIEF, POOR LAW REFORM, RECOVERY OF COST OF RELIEF and UNEMPLOYMENT.) The General Order of 1844 requires that, subject to certain exceptions, every able-bodied person, male or female, in need of relief is to be relieved wholly in the workhouse (see WORKHOUSES), together with such of the family of every able-bodied person as may be resident with him or her and may not be in employment, and together with the wife of every such able-bodied male person, if he be a married man and if she be resident with him; but the Guardians are not bound to require any child of an able-bodied person who can support itself to go into the workhouse with the parent if it appear expedient that such child should continue in employment. The chief exception is that of "sudden and urgent necessity," but this does not authorise permanent or continued relief. If the necessity, moreover, is sudden, *i.e.*, unexpected, but not urgent, or urgent without being sudden, the relief must be given in the workhouse.

The other exceptions are where such persons require relief on account of sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity affecting such person or any of his or her family; where relief is required for the burial of any of his or her

family; where a widow is in the first six months of her widowhood; where a widow has legitimate children depending on her; where relief is needed for the wife and children of a husband who is in legal confinement, or for the wives or children of soldiers and sailors, or for the wives of non-residents.

A boy of sixteen, capable of earning his living, may be able-bodied, and no relief is to be given to any able-bodied male while he is employed for wages or hire by any person.

Every able-bodied male person, if relieved out of the workhouse under a labour test order, is to be set to work by the Guardians, and to be kept employed under their direction and superintendence so long as he continues to receive relief.

In cases of exceptional distress not dealt with under the Unemployed Workmen Act, it is important that the work provided should be:—

1. work which will not involve the stigma of pauperism;
2. work which all can perform, whatever may have been their previous avocations;
3. work which does not compete with that of other labourers at present in employment; and
4. work which is not likely to interfere with the resumption of regular employment in their own

trades by those who seek it. (See Local Government Board (*q.v.*) circular of November 14, 1892.)

From the reports sent in annually by the various Inspectors to the L.G.B., it is evident that an exceedingly large proportion of those classed (for diet) as able-bodied would be incapable of earning their own living (see Local Government Board annual reports); and Mr. Herbert has divided them into the following classes :—

1. Those unable to earn their living owing to mental weakness. They can do garden and such-like work, but need constant supervision.

2. Men physically weak or temporarily disabled. For these the Workmen's Compensation (*q.v.*) Act would be, in many cases, a bar to regular employment.

3. Men who have lost employment through drink.

4. The ne'er-do-wells.

5. Able-bodied men with large families.

6. Men physically and mentally fit, but unable to find employment.

For these the opening of the labour exchanges may be of some use. Labour yards and Farm Colonies are not sufficient in themselves, and there is a danger that thriftless persons may be encouraged to rely upon relief assistance. The Poor Law Commissioners of 1909 were not in favour of these. The general lines of reform suggested, in addition to the present powers exercised by Boards of Guardians, were : A system of State insurance against unemployment (see WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD) with the underlying principle of self-help and thrift, together with powers to emigrate or to recommend for emigration or migration such able-bodied persons for whom the cost might reasonably be defrayed by

Parliamentary grant (see COLONISATION.) It was generally recommended that any work provided should, while primarily acting as a deterrent, offer as great a variety of occupation as possible ; that powers of detention should be given to the relieving authority to detain and train persons in suitable institutions or colonies, and that cases of persistent idleness should be referred to a Detention Colony under the control of the Home Office (*q.v.*). Confirmed drunkards and persons leading immoral lives should also be detained (see INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES), and there should be some systematic attempt on the part of all the agencies endeavouring to deal with the able-bodied person to differentiate between "the honest, the criminal, the unfortunate, the strong, the weak, the industrious, the incorrigible, and the indifferent." "To be able in body is not the same as to be able to work."

Abstract.—(See also REGISTER.) It is required that an abstract of the Factory Act of 1901 (*q.v.*), the name and address of the inspector, and the certifying surgeon for the district, and a notice of the clock by which the period of employment is regulated shall be affixed at the entrance to every factory and workshop and in such other parts thereof as the inspector directs, together with any other document or notice for which similar publicity is required. The penalty for contravention is 40s.

Accident Allowances.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.)

Accident Insurance.—(See LIFE ASSURANCE.)

Accidents in Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Accounts: Audit.—(Local Authorities: England and Wales.) Except as regards the municipal and sanitary accounts of the great

majority of borough councils (*q.v.*) the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) have power in most cases to prescribe forms of account and methods of account keeping. In effect, they have only done so as regards overseers, (*q.v.*), guardians (*q.v.*), some other Poor Law Authorities, and non-municipal urban district councils. With the exceptions mentioned, the accounts of all important local authorities are audited yearly or half-yearly by "district auditors" appointed by the Local Government Board. It is a public audit, of which public notice is given, and at which persons may attend and object to charges in the accounts, opportunity for inspection being given previously to the audit. The auditors have power to allow or disallow expenditure, and to surcharge negligent or defaulting officers, or the members of local authorities who may have authorised improper expenditure. There is a right of appeal against the decision of a district auditor, either to the High Court or to the Local Government Board, and the latter have power to remit a disallowance, or surcharge on equitable, though they may uphold it on legal, grounds. It could be wished that this public audit excited greater public interest; but its thoroughness is fully equal to its importance. In the case of boroughs (municipal and sanitary accounts), a system of audit by one auditor appointed by the mayor, and two others elected by the burgesses, obtains. This is now pretty commonly supplemented by an examination by professional accountants, but is antiquated and most ineffective. All borough councils, however, had to accept audit by the district auditors in the case of their education accounts, under the Act abolishing school boards; and a few boroughs, voluntarily or under stimulus, have

accepted audit by the district auditors of the whole body of their accounts.

Acts of Parliament.—There are three classes of Acts of Parliament, known as 'public general,' 'local and personal,' and 'private.' It is difficult to define the dividing line between the first two, but, broadly speaking, 'public general' Acts are Acts which apply to the whole country, though many of them in relation to the social welfare of the people are only in force when adopted by the local authority concerned with their administration. These are known as 'adoptive Acts.' Familiar examples are the Public Libraries (*q.v.*) Acts, the Baths and Washhouses (*q.v.*) Acts, and the Infectious Diseases Notification Act (see INFECTIOUS DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES). Objection is made to this permissive legislation on the ground that it allows negligent local authorities to be indifferent to many matters which are admittedly in need of attention. On the other hand, it prevents legislation from being in advance of public opinion, without the support of which it cannot be really effective. No local authority is likely to disregard the wishes of its constituents, if they feel strongly that the adoption of an Act is necessary. Permissive legislation is in itself a means of educating public opinion, and a 'public general' Act may amend its predecessor by changing "may" into "shall," and so bring into line a small minority of recalcitrant local authorities who have not followed the example of their more enlightened colleagues. Copies of 'public general' Acts can always be obtained in a separate form at the cost of a few pence each, according to their length. The price of the volume containing all the legislation of a session is generally only 3s. Copies of 'local and personal'

Acts are more costly, but often concern the social worker more closely than the 'public general' Acts. The cities and large towns are frequently promoting legislation on their account, and their Bills pass into law as 'local and personal' Acts, having application to their own particular areas. But often important matters of social reform receive attention before public opinion seems ripe for general legislation on the subject. For example, several corporations dealt with the street-trading of children (see **BOY LABOUR** and **CHILD LABOUR**) before Parliament passed any legislation applicable to the whole country. If, therefore, any matter seems to require the support of legislation, in order to effect its reform in a particular locality, it may be necessary only to educate public opinion within the area of the particular local authority in order to obtain the assistance of Parliament through a local Act. 'Private Acts' apply only to individuals, very often are not printed, and have no public interest.

Many modern Acts of Parliament are mere skeletons, which have to be clothed by administrative regulations made by the authority of a Government department. These subordinate enactments are known as statutory rules and orders, and are published in an inexpensive form. In all legal enactments, however, there may be difficulty for the lay reader, on account of their phraseology and the frequent reference to some earlier statute or order.

Administration of Justice.—(See also **CHILDREN'S COURTS**, **JUVENILE OFFENDERS** and **POLICE AND SOCIAL WORKERS**.) There is a common impression, extending even to educated people, that the work of the police force depends to some extent upon payments by results. On the contrary, the prospects of a policeman are seriously

affected by hasty action or an attempt to concoct a charge against anyone. Even when the policeman has taken the prisoner to the police station, it does not follow necessarily that the officer in charge will accept the charge. Nor, on the other hand, when the prisoner is discharged by the magistrate does it imply that the policeman and his superior have made an improper arrest. In addition, many people go to the police court on their own account. The magistrate is something more than a judge. Much of the modern statutory law has enhanced the paternal character which he enjoys by the nature of his work. He is the counsellor and friend of the poor. Although the stipendiary magistrate is a comparatively modern creation, his work is practically the same as that of the justice of the peace, which is one of the oldest offices in the administration of justice. To a large section of the population the magistrate is the embodiment of justice, and in any matter of a legal character it is natural to resort to him. In London and other towns excellent work in connection with legal difficulties is done by the Poor Man's Lawyer (*q.v.*). At many police courts the person appearing before the magistrate, whether as an applicant for advice or an offender in the charge of the police, may have the assistance of a Police Court Missionary (*q.v.*).

The old custom for a justice of the peace to decide some matter at his private residence is now no longer possible. He must sit in some place to which the public can have access. A single justice can only deal with certain classes of cases, and can only punish to the extent of imprisonment for not more than fourteen days or a fine of (including costs) not more than 20s. Two justices, constituting a Petty Sessional Court, are required

to exercise summary jurisdiction to the full. A stipendiary magistrate is equivalent to two justices, and to avoid repetition the magistrate only will be mentioned in the following statements. The magistrate has a double jurisdiction—civil and criminal. The former is the less important. Its most common exercise is in the grant of separation orders (see HUSBAND AND WIFE), bastardy (*q.v.*) proceedings, and disputes between employers and workmen (see MASTER AND SERVANT). The criminal jurisdiction covers hundreds of offences. The statistics are set out in detail in the volume of Criminal Statistics presented annually to Parliament under the direction of the Home Office (*q.v.*) The most common is drunkenness "with aggravations," and next to that comes simple drunkenness. Stealing, or what is technically known as simple larceny, is a cause, in many instances, for an acquaintance with the disciplinary jurisdiction of the magistrate. Other offences in which the proceedings taken annually are numbered by more than 10,000 are common assaults, cruelty to animals (*q.v.*), offences in relation to dogs, against the Education Acts, by owners and drivers of carts, for causing obstructions and nuisances (*q.v.*), and by controllers of motor-cars and bicycles. Recent Acts of Parliament have created a considerable body of legislation authorising local authorities to make bye-laws (*q.v.*), which have added largely to the number of petty offences for which a person may be brought before a magistrate. They are classed with the infringement of police regulations, which also accounts for a considerable number of convictions. Above the number of 10,000 must also be included prostitution and offences against the Revenue and Vagrancy Acts,

including under the latter: begging (*q.v.*), sleeping out, and gaming (see BETTING). The number proceeded against is very much larger than the number of convictions. In the case of proceedings under the Education Acts, the proportion is more than six to one. A wide discretion is permitted to the magistrate, even to the extent of dismissing a charge which has been proved against the offender, or attaching to the dismissal merely a condition to find security to be of good behaviour. The magistrate will probably welcome evidence as to character and antecedents from anyone well acquainted with the circumstances. Such assistance may properly be rendered by the social worker, but it is not desirable to endeavour to aid the offender by anything in the nature of legal advice, as that should be left to qualified advisers. If the seriousness of the offence requires the prisoner to be sent for trial in a higher court, then the social worker's opportunities are confined to securing such professional advice as the circumstances may render possible, and the collection of any evidence which the solicitor or counsel may suggest as likely to be useful. It is not necessary, therefore, to set forth the procedure upon appeal, since the social worker, like the prisoner, must be guided by others into the proper course of action.

Difficulties may sometimes arise which are beyond the small jurisdiction of the magistrate in civil actions, and then recourse must be had to the county court. The area of jurisdiction of the court does not coincide with the county, but the name recalls that the court has an ancient history dating back to the time when King Alfred divided the kingdom into shires or counties. Broadly speaking, the jurisdiction of the county court extends to all

actions where the sum involved is not more than £100. The court has jurisdiction, under a series of special Acts, of which a complete enumeration is unnecessary, but reference may be made to some of the more common. They relate to bankruptcy, bills of exchange and promissory notes, bills of sale, default of officers of building societies, committal for non-payment of debts (see RECOVERY OF DEBT) disputes between employer and workman, disputes in regard to friendly societies (*q.v.*), including insurance matters, the levying of distress (*q.v.*), the acquisition of small dwellings, and workmen's compensation (*q.v.*) The applicant, of course, may appear personally in support of his action, and may be sure of the sympathetic attention of the judge; but it will generally be desirable to obtain the assistance of a solicitor. In order to avoid misapprehension, it should be added that the Supreme Court may be used by pauper litigants (see POOR MAN'S LAWYER), but the occasions upon which the matters with which they are concerned come within its provinces are so rare, that it does not seem necessary to refer to its powers and procedure in detail.

Adoption of Children.—(See INFANT LIFE PROTECTION.)

Adoptive Acts.—(See ACTS OF PARLIAMENT.)

Adult Schools.—The large increase in the number of adult schools is one of the most interesting educational developments in recent years. They are distinguished from the ordinary continuation school (*q.v.*) by being of a semi-religious character. Many have been founded by members of the Society of Friends. They flourish in the villages as well as in the towns, and meet wherever they can find accommodation. It is stated that the adult schools for men are

twice as numerous as those for women. The time of meeting for the men is early on Sunday morning, while the women's schools meet on Sunday afternoon and week day evenings. The object of the schools has been defined to be "to intensify the social spirit by associating men together for the free study of the deeper problems of life, viewed in relation to the ideal of manhood set before them in the Gospels." The lectures on social, scientific, or historical subjects, therefore, are supplementary to the religious address or Bible class. These adult schools flourish in the Midlands, and an interesting comparison between them and the People's High Schools in Denmark was made in the Report of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education (*q.v.*) on Continuation Schools, published in 1909.

Adulteration.—(See also COMMERCIAL MORALITY.) Some idea of the scope for adulteration and of the wide range covered by the Sale of Food and Drugs Acts, 1875 to 1907, the Public Health (Regulations as to Food) Act, 1907, etc., may be gathered from the Annual Reports of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) (*e.g.*, 38th Annual Report, cd. 4928, 1909). For instance, during 1908, 95,664 samples of food and drugs were analysed, and of these 8,169 were condemned as being adulterated or falling below the legal standard. Legal proceedings were instituted in 3,643 cases, and penalties were imposed in 2,673 cases, amounting in the aggregate to £6,143 18s. 10d., exclusive of costs in most cases. Of the milk samples, 10 per cent. were found to be adulterated; but it is said that "while the heavy adulteration practised thirty years ago has practically disappeared, the practice of robbing good milk of a large proportion of its cream so that it may just escape condemnation by the

public analyst is on the increase." (Local Government Board Report, *ubi, sup.*, p. lxxxviii.)

The use of preservatives is also reported to be greatly on the increase, and is being extended to many different kinds of food. By this means, foods which ought to be perishable are made to keep in the shops for long periods, and become indigestible and dyspepsia-producing. The Merchandise Marks Acts, 1887-1894, attempt to restrict fraudulent forms of trade descriptions—*e.g.*, foreign mutton, or poultry or eggs, falsely described as Welsh, English, or Irish, etc. Under the Fertilisers and Feeding Stuffs Act, 1906, administered by the Board of Agriculture, 1,710 samples of fertilisers were analysed in 1909, and 1,995 samples of feeding stuffs.

The offence of adulteration consists (1) in adding some foreign substance to an article of food and thereby rendering it injurious to health, and (2) in selling any article of food or drug which is not of the nature, substance, and quality demanded by the purchaser. An example of the former is bread with alum in it, and of the latter milk deficient in butter-fat. Other ingredients may be added provided that they are not injurious to health nor intended fraudulently to increase the weight, bulk, or measure, or conceal the inferior quality of the article, but there must be a clear notification to the vendor by means of a label that he is purchasing a mixture. The label, however, does not serve as a protection against fraud. A mixture of 60 per cent. coffee and 40 per cent. chicory sold at the price of pure coffee was found by the justices to be a fraudulent mixture, and it was decided that the words "this is sold as a mixture of chicory and coffee" did not protect the vendor from conviction.

The Board of Agriculture (*q.v.*)

have power to make regulations for determining what deficiency in any of the normal constituents of genuine milk, cream, butter or cheese, or what addition of extraneous matter or proportion of water raise a presumption for the purpose of the Food and Drugs Acts that the article is not genuine, or is injurious to health. Regulations in regard to milk were made in 1901. It must not contain less than three per cent. of milk-fat nor less than 8·5 per cent. of milk solids other than milk-fat. Skimmed or separated milk should not contain less than nine per cent. of milk solids. Regulations in regard to butter were made in 1902 and require that the proportion of water should not exceed 16 per cent.

Private individuals may take action against the vendors of adulterated food, but it is the duty of the local authority to secure the execution of the laws and, for that purpose, to appoint a public analyst (*q.v.*).

Special provision is made in the Food and Drugs Act in regard to "margarine," "margarine cheese," "machine-skimmed milk," "skimmed milk," and other imported articles. The Act applies to all butter containing more than 16 per cent. of water; margarine containing more than 16 per cent. of water, or 10 per cent. of butter fats; and milk blended butter containing more than 24 per cent. of water. All packages must be clearly marked with the nature of their contents. It devolves upon the Commissioners of Customs to watch that no offence is committed against the Act, and also to secure that no preservative is added in excess of the amount allowed by regulation of the Board of Agriculture. The Commissioners of the Customs have similar powers of inspection in regard to tea and coffee imported into the United Kingdom.

Advisory Committees. — (See APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, BOY LABOUR, and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Affiliation Proceedings. — (See BASTARDY.)

Afforestation.—Forestry in the United Kingdom at present employs about 16,000 men, but some idea of what this industry is capable of doing may be gathered from the report of the Royal Commission on Afforestation (1910). As shown in that report, the Commissioners recommend that 150,000 acres be afforested annually by the State until a total area of 9,000,000 acres be converted into woodland. Were this done, temporary employment would be given to 18,000 men each winter, and ultimately 90,000 men would find employment in the State forests. There can be no doubt that our soil and climatic conditions favour the growth of trees to an extent not paralleled in any European country, yet while most European States have 15 or 20 per cent. of their surface under forest, the United Kingdom has not more than 4 per cent. That there is no lack of suitable land is shown by the fact that the Agricultural Statistics return about 21,000,000 acres as "rough mountain and heath land." It need hardly be said that the whole of this vast area could not be readily acquired even if it were available, nor would all of it be capable of afforestation at a profit. Much of it is situated at too high an elevation, or is otherwise unsuitable, but the figure is useful as reminding us that there is a great deal of undeveloped land which could be covered with forest to advantage both from the social and economic point of view. While several million acres of afforestable land are at present to a great extent unproductive, the imports of timber amount to over 10,000,000 tons,

and cost the country upwards of £30,000,000 annually. This timber which we obtain in greatest quantity from Russia, Norway, Sweden and Canada, is rising markedly in price owing to the gradual exhaustion of the natural forests. At the same time, the demand for timber is constantly increasing, because, in spite of substitutes being found for some purposes, new uses are discovered from time to time. There is a natural disposition on the part of many landowners to afforest, but unfortunately little is done, as the prospect of remuneration is too distant. Large sums of money are necessarily involved in forestry operations, and returns, although good, are long deferred. State ownership is therefore indicated. In the hands of Government, national forestry is already a success—and has been for a very long period—in France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden and many other countries.

As regards the actual work of afforestation, this consists in the main in partial cultivation of the land and the planting of small trees. The methods of soil-preparation vary according to the nature of the ground and the species of tree selected. In Scotland a cheap system of notch-planting is practised, but it is not always satisfactory. At best it is only applicable to conifers planted in friable soil in a moist climate. A day's labour of a man and a boy is sufficient in this case to plant 1,000 small trees, whereas in districts where "pit-planting" is the rule, it takes one man about 5 days to make 1,000 holes and insert the plants. Under average conditions about 3,000 trees are planted per acre, it therefore follows that the expenditure on labour in planting may vary from (say) 15s. to 45s. per acre.

The plants themselves, if bought from a trade nursery will usually cost about 20s. per thousand, or (say) £3 per acre, although, as a matter of fact, the plants can be raised from seed in home nurseries at smaller cost by those establishing the forest. In the latter case, all the expenditure is upon labour excepting perhaps the trifling outlay for seed and implements. From this it will be seen how important forestry is as an industry providing much healthful employment. In addition to planting operations, there is the fencing of afforested areas, drainage and other works of preparation, while later on, thinning, felling, and the conversion of timber into manufactured articles necessitate the employment of many men.

Although the greater number of those engaged in tree-planting need not be trained experts, silviculture is a highly technical industry requiring the guidance of practical scientific men. Of recent years this has been recognised in England, and schools of forestry have been established in Newcastle (Armstrong College), Bangor (University College of North Wales), Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh. There are also associations existing solely for the furtherance of forestry objects, such as the Royal English and the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Societies.

After-care of Consumptives.—(See SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.)

After-care of Feeble-minded Children.—(See also ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) "After Care" has been established to meet the need of the Special School child for control and guidance, after the period of its school training has ceased. Though under educational influence, its mental capacity may have been improved and developed, in all countries where such educa-

tional experiments have been tried, experience has established as a truth the axiom, "once feeble-minded, always feeble-minded," with but rare exceptions, and in these cases the genuineness of the feebleness of mind is, as a rule, disputed by experts. The objects of "After-Care" centres are: (1) To keep a record of the lives of children leaving Special Schools (*q.v.*) in order to ascertain the benefit of the special education they have received by recording what proportion of them (*a*) become self-supporting, (*b*) are sent to homes and institutions, or (*c*) become criminal, immoral, or wastrels; and (2) to befriend these children and assist them to find work where practical. The method of working is to form a local committee, usually consisting of managers of Special Schools, with co-opted members, one at least of whom should be a medical man or woman. Each member undertakes the visiting of five or six children. A record sheet is provided for each child. Once a year the summary of these records is sent in to the National Association for the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*); the summarised statistics are presented at the annual conference which is each year held in a different locality. The statistics include such headings as follows: Children engaged in remunerative work; those doing no work; those placed in institutions, *i.e.*, asylums, prisons, workhouses (*q.v.*), or homes for feeble-minded; children lost sight of before, or after, school exemption; children transferred to normal schools. It will be seen, therefore, that such statistics form an important social record in ascertaining, firstly, what benefit the Special School education has been to these children; and, secondly, in tracing records of crime, immorality, or pauperism to their sources in feeble-mindedness. Each centre adopting

the system is entitled to send two delegates to the National Association Central After-Care Committee, which meets twice yearly, once in London at the rooms of the Association, in May, and once at the place of conference. The work of arranging for local conferences, and of regulating the general rules for After-Care Committees, rests with the Central Committee, which also publishes the report of the Conference.

The first After-Care Committee was formed in Birmingham in May, 1901. It consisted of five members of the Special Schools Committee and eight co-opted members. Its first printed report (1904) shows that eighty-three mentally defective children had been dealt with. Leicester and Nottingham soon followed. A scheme for the co-ordination of the work was then put forward by the National Association, all Special School Centres were invited to co-operate in the work, and an Annual Conference was established. Almost all the large towns possessing Special Schools are now connected with the movement, and the children under care number about 3,000. The returns made do not offer very much hope that the feeble-minded, however well educated, will hold their own under ordinary industrial conditions. The following extracts from current statistics will give some idea of the history of children of this class after they leave the Special Schools. Out of a total of 2,746, the children found to be in more or less regular work number only 702. There are about 410 of them living at home, about half of whom are found to be completely useless; 520 have disappeared and cannot be traced; while 141 are found to be in work-houses, 49 in asylums, and 259 have had to be placed in institutions.

On the whole, therefore, only one-fourth turn out to be even com-

paratively self-supporting, and the worth of their work may be judged by the fact that their wages, when tested in different centres, do not average 10s. weekly. It may be, therefore, inferred that the greater number are fit only for institutional care, for which provision is now made by both State and voluntary effort (see HOMES AND COLONIES, FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED). This co-ordinated After-Care system has been found useful not only in throwing light on the history of the feeble-minded child, but also by rendering possible a comparison of the work of different localities. It has demonstrated in which localities the care of the feeble-minded is ably and efficiently conducted, and inspired the weaker centres with a higher sense of their responsibilities towards the mentally defective.

Agency.—Generally speaking, a principal or employer is bound by the acts of his agent or servant, in so far as the agent has acted within the scope of the authority entrusted to him. If an agent is engaged for a particular duty alone, then the principal will not be responsible for anything that the agent may do outside the limits of this duty, *e.g.*, if a house agent authorised to sell a house fails to do so, but succeeds in letting it, the owner will not be bound to carry out the bargain. If, however, the agent has a general authority, then the principal will be bound in all matters which can reasonably be held to be within the scope of his duties, *e.g.*, if an estate agent who customarily transacts his master's business makes a bad bargain in letting or selling a farm, the owner will have to carry out the bargain, however much he may disapprove his agent's action in the matter.

An agent is bound to exercise all reasonable care and diligence on his employer's behalf. He must keep complete statements of all money

received and disbursed, and be prepared to furnish accounts whenever required. No man is bound to perform a gratuitous undertaking, but if he does perform it, he will be liable for any negligence or breach of duty.

Apart from the remuneration agreed upon, which may be either by way of salary or commission or both, an agent is not permitted, except with the knowledge and consent of his principal, to make any profit personally from his agency. Thus, a cook who receives a commission from the butcher on all purchases she makes on behalf of her mistress is liable to pay over to the latter all money thus obtained.

Further, by the Prevention of Corruption Act of 1906, an agent who corruptly accepts, or attempts to obtain from a third party, any bribe or secret commission which may be expected to influence him in the conduct of his principal's business, and a person who corruptly gives or offers such a bribe, are alike guilty of a misdemeanour, punishable, on conviction, with imprisonment without hard labour for two years, or by a maximum fine of £500. (See also **ILLICIT COMMISSIONS.**)

A contract made by an agent is, as a general rule, deemed to be the contract of the principal by whose authority or on whose behalf it is made, and hence the principal can sue, or be sued, upon it. But if an agent enter into a contract in his own name, but in reality for an undisclosed principal, the other party can choose which of the two, principal or agent, he will hold responsible for the performance of the contract.

A principal or master will be liable for the wrongs committed by, or the negligence of his agent or servant, when the latter was acting under the former's orders, express or implied, or in the ordinary course

of his business. Thus, a person injured by the careless driving of a motor-car should, in most cases, attempt to obtain redress from the owner of the car and not from the chauffeur. He may sue either principal or agent, or both together; but if he obtain judgment against the agent, he will be barred afterwards from suing the principal, even though, owing to lack of means or other causes, the judgment be unenforceable. But the principal or master is not responsible for the wrongful acts of his servant or agent if the latter was not acting on his behalf at the time, or was acting without the principal's authority outside the ordinary scope of his employment. So where a bailiff in levying a distress commits an unauthorised and unnecessary assault, he alone can be sued. (See also **MASTER AND SERVANT.**)

Agreements. — (See **LANDLORD AND TENANT.**)

Agricultural Education. — (See also **OUTDOOR EDUCATION, RURAL DEVELOPMENT** and **SCHOOL JOURNEYS.**) The Board of Agriculture (*q.v.*) and the Board of Education (*q.v.*) have arranged that all Parliamentary grants in respect of agricultural education be distributed under the guidance of a committee consisting of responsible officers of the two Boards, who consider and report on all questions as to the grants to be made in cases in which they are mutually interested.

The Board of Education, in the main, deal with county and other local authorities, including largely increased provision of farm schools for various types and grades of agricultural work.

On the other hand, the supervision of farms and experimental stations in connection with farm schools are supervised and aided by the Board of Agriculture, so that they may keep in touch with the

latest and best developments in practical agriculture.

Institutions restricted to one special section, such as forestry (see AFFORESTATION), dairying, cider-making, are also dealt with by the Board of Agriculture.

The Board of Education has suggested the following syllabus of instruction in rural economics, suitable for persons who have passed school age, and are interested or employed in agricultural industry:—land tenure, freeholds and leaseholds, allotments (*q.v.*) and small holdings (*q.v.*), small holdings abroad (*e.g.*, in France); conditions necessary to success; markets, co-operation, purchase and sale, history of co-operation, co-operative development in Denmark; cost of carriage of produce by road, rail, and water; capital required for cultivating holdings, cost of tillage, the position of stock on the holding; agricultural credit, credit banks as in Hungary and Germany; value of unexhausted improvements.

The Agricultural Organisation Society have circularised the county education committees, reminding them that instruction in agricultural co-operation may be properly included in courses, in respect of which the Board of Agriculture make grants, and that the fact is now universally admitted by rural economists that the profitable cultivation of small holdings and allotments depends mainly upon the adoption of co-operative methods applied (1) to the tenure of the holding, (2) to the purchase of agricultural requisites, and (3) to the disposal of produce.

The Royal Agricultural Society holds annual shows, maintains laboratories for the making of analyses, retains the services of experts, controls an experimental farm at Woburn, and publishes text-books and a journal. The

Royal Veterinary College and the Lawes' Testimonial Laboratory do useful work, and the Rothamstead Experimental Station is invaluable for its experiments as to the value of manures and feeding stuffs. There is, in addition, a number of societies which specialise on various branches of agriculture.

Agricultural instruction leading up to a degree is given at Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and at the University Colleges of Aberdeen, Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cambridge, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, and Reading.

There are agricultural colleges not leading to a degree, but rather specialising on practical work at Cirencester, Derby, Holmes Chapel (Cheshire), Uckfield (Sussex), and Wye (Kent).

Institutes exist for dairying at Reading and Ipswich, and other special agricultural institutes, Ridgmount, Beds.; Perrith Farm School, Chelmsford; Technical Laboratory, Basing Farm School. The general work of education, however, rests with the county councils (*q.v.*).

Agricultural education in the agricultural counties is, with a few marked exceptions in the West of England, in a very unsatisfactory state; but several of the industrial counties now possess organised systems of instruction in agriculture.

The expenditure on agricultural education per thousand male agriculturists varies from under £50 in Berks, Bucks, Hunts, Isle of Ely, Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Northants, Oxfordshire, Rutland, Suffolk, West Sussex, Anglesey, Brecon, Carnarvon, Denbigh, to over £100 in Derby, Durham, Kent, Stafford, Worcester; to over £175 in Cheshire, £187 in Lancashire, £204 in East Sussex, £210 in Monmouth, and £220 in Surrey.

In Berkshire an Advisory Board, with co-optive members, directs

agricultural education in the county and confers with the various sub-committees.

In Northants grants will be made by the county council to agricultural societies (see CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES) which undertake instruction in the manual processes of shearing, stacking, thatching, ploughing, ditching, hedge-cutting, etc.

The best county councils (*q.v.*) are endeavouring—

(a) to encourage the more general establishment of evening schools (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS) and their utilisation in such a way as to add to the opportunities of technical education (*q.v.*) and healthy recreation.

(b) to encourage the co-option of women on educational bodies and committees.

(c) to give special facilities for the instruction of small holders in the principles and methods of intensive cultivation, which have been so successful in France and Belgium, and of dairy work as carried out in Denmark.

(d) to promote lectures and classes for instruction in the principles and methods of agricultural co-operation.

In elementary schools (*q.v.*), school gardens (see OUTDOOR EDUCATION) and equipment for manual instruction are provided; in continuation and secondary schools (*q.v.*), scholarships (*q.v.*) should be tenable for boys who have shown aptitude for agricultural pursuits; nature study and elementary science teaching of a practical character should be given in close connection with practical work. Other scholarships should provide for continuing the education of young men from the secondary or continuation schools (*q.v.*) to agricultural colleges or institutes, giving the higher form of agricultural instruction both, practical

and scientific. These higher institutions should be connected with, and supported by, a group of counties, and should maintain experimental farms and stations with the help of the central department.

In Wiltshire, the agricultural education committee have offered to provide and supervise practical instruction in dairying and other suitable rural occupations, for pupils attending day schools.

Agricultural Societies.—(See CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.)

Agriculture.—(See BOARD OF AGRICULTURE.)

Agriculture, Children employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR, II.)

Albert Medal.—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.)

Aliens.—(See also IMMIGRATION, NATURALISATION, and UNDESIRABLE IMMIGRANTS.) The admission of aliens into this country is regulated by an Act of Parliament passed in 1905. The recognised ports of entry into England are Cardiff, Dover, Folkestone, Grimsby, Harwich, Hull, Liverpool, London (including Queensborough), Newhaven, Plymouth, Southampton, and Tyne Ports (Newcastle, North and South Shields). At each there is an Immigration Board to administer the Act. An alien may be expelled from the country by an order of the Home Secretary upon the conviction before a magistrate for certain offences. The magistrate may also make a certificate upon which the Home Secretary can take action if the alien "has within three months from the time at which proceedings for the certificate are commenced been in receipt of any such relief as disqualifies a person for the parliamentary franchise, or been found wandering without ostensible means of subsistence, or been living under insanitary conditions due to overcrowding." It seems that anyone may take proceedings under this section.

Allotments.—Under the Small Holdings (*q.v.*) Act, 1908, it is the duty of county councils (*q.v.*) to inquire into the demand for allotments by the labouring class in rural parishes and in urban districts other than boroughs, and to supply them where the authorities of those districts have not done their duty. If a county council fail in this duty, the Board of Agriculture (*q.v.*) may hold a local inquiry and transfer their powers to the Small Holdings Commissioners.

There is a duty to supply allotments up to 1 acre in extent, but as much as 5 acres may be supplied. The land may be improved and adapted for letting in allotments, and a dwelling-house erected on an allotment of one acre or more. Common pasture and grazing rights may also be provided.

Parish councils (*q.v.*) may acquire land for allotments by agreement to an unlimited extent, subject to the consent of the county council to the necessary loans. They may also acquire land compulsorily by representing the case to the county council, who may exercise the powers of compulsory purchase and assure or demise the land to the parish council, who must pay the expenses of the county council. If the county council fail to act, an appeal may be made to the Board of Agriculture.

The total quantity of land held for allotments by councils on December 31, 1909, was 26,764 acres for 90,550 allotment holders and 22 associations.

The returns show that 1,253 acres were acquired for allotments in 1908 and 2,407 acres in 1909. The quantity purchased in the latter year was 284 acres and the price paid £22,251, and the quantity leased was 2,123 acres, rented at £4,609. The amount spent on adaptation was £9,101.

Almoners.—This name is given to

those engaged in the administration of charitable relief (*q.v.*), especially in the case of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). Hospital almoners deal with the relief of the necessitous in hospitals (*q.v.*).

Almshouses.—(See ENDOWED CHARITIES.)

Ambulance.—(See also AMBULANCE WORK.) An ambulance is a vehicle for conveying a wounded or sick person to a place of safety—a hospital or elsewhere. Hand ambulances are kept at all police stations, and used by the police for street accidents, and for persons found ill or injured in a public place.

At the principal fever hospitals, or in connection with them, well-equipped ambulances are usually to be found for removing to the hospital cases of infectious disease. In London these are provided by the Metropolitan Asylums Board (*q.v.*). Anybody can apply for a fever ambulance by telephone or otherwise, but the application is usually made through the local Public Health Department, where particulars can be obtained. The London fever hospitals only receive cases of scarlet fever, diphtheria, enteric fever, smallpox, and cerebro-spinal meningitis, and have recently begun to receive certain cases of measles specially requiring isolation. Persons suffering from these and certain other infectious diseases (*q.v.*) may be removed by the Board's ambulance between any places in the Metropolis on payment of 5s. The fee may be remitted for poor persons.

The Metropolitan Asylums Board also provides ambulances on payment of a small fee (7s. 6d. in London), for accidents and non-infectious cases. They have, however, no legal power to do this, the London County Council (*q.v.*) having been constituted the authority for the purpose by the London Ambulance Act, 1909.

The St. John's Ambulance Association (*q.v.*) provides both an ambulance and bearers for removal from and to any part on application and payment at St. John's Gate, Clerkenwell. The ordinary charge is too high for the working classes. The Association also maintains various stations in London, at each of which is a hamper of stores and a stretcher to be used for accidents.

The Bischoffsheim Ambulance Service of London provides a wheeled litter and stores at different places in the Metropolis for use by the police and others in accidents.

Sixteen of the large provincial towns have a horse ambulance service for accidents, etc., and twelve have only hand ambulances. These are provided either municipally or by voluntary effort.

(For fuller information, see *L. C. C. Report on London Ambulance Service*, 1902, price 9d.)

Ambulance Work.— Assistance may be obtained by anyone organising an ambulance class from the Chief Secretary of the St. John's Ambulance Association (*q.v.*). When a suitable number—from twenty-five to thirty is the best number—have expressed their intention to join a class, it is desirable to enlist the services of a local medical practitioner to give the lectures. The Association will provide a lecturer, but the expense is then an important consideration, and any lecturer whose name is on the Medical Register will be recognised by the Association, provided that he follows the official syllabus. A small sum is payable to the Association for expenses, and certain stores necessary in the lectures may be hired for a small charge. In the case of classes for railway employees and other working people, it may be desirable to cover the expenses by subscription, which should be raised easily, since anyone must recognise

the practical value of the subject. It should be noted, however, that the Board of Education (*q.v.*) and the local education authorities (*q.v.*) may aid classes held in connection with the Association under the regulations dealing with continuation schools (*q.v.*). Mixed classes of males and females are not allowed under any circumstances. The course of lectures may consist of ten of one hour each, or may be otherwise divided to meet the convenience of the lecturer and the class. An examination is held at the end of the course by an examiner approved by the Association, for whose services a fee is payable. Upon the result certificates will be granted, and the Association also bestows medallions and labels.

A modified course of instruction is issued for pupils under sixteen years of age, and is suitable for organisations such as Bands of Hope, Church Lads' Brigade, Boys' Brigade, Boy Scouts, and other similar bodies. The general conditions are the same as for the senior classes, including the prohibition of mixed classes, and arrangements are made to minimise the expense as far as possible.

The successful candidates in a First Aid Course may then proceed to the Home Nursing Course, which is somewhat longer, and held under similar conditions. The first aid course may be described as an equipment for emergencies, while the home nursing provides the knowledge for sustained care of the sick, as it furnishes information in regard to the conditions of the sick room, the circumstances of infection and disinfection, details of nursing, and the application of local remedies.

The Ambulance Brigade has been formed to give holders of first aid certificates opportunities of meeting together for ambulance practice,

and thus to combine individual efforts for the public advantage. The first important occasion upon which the ambulance branches rendered service at a large gathering of people in an exhibition was at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition in 1886. The work which the ambulance corps had done among crowds led to the recognition by the Commissioner of Police, in the following year, that an ambulance organisation was necessary to the complete efficiency of the Metropolitan Police. The Brigade was formed not long after primarily to render first aid to the injured on public occasions, through a body of men trained for the purpose, and may also be used, in case of necessity, either at home or abroad, to supplement the naval or military organisation. The Brigade itself, with its various grades of officers, is organised somewhat upon military lines. Members of the Nursing Division must have a certificate in nursing, as well as the certificate in first aid. An ambulance division usually consists of not less than sixteen members, exclusive of an honorary surgeon, and a nursing division of not less than twelve nursing sisters. Every member of either section is required to be re-examined annually in first aid. Promotion is granted according to length and excellence of service. The Brigade supplements the Invalid Transport Service of the Association, which undertakes the conveyance of sick and injured persons.

The organisation of the Territorial Force has been followed by the formation of ambulance county companies, with the co-operation of the St. John's Ambulance Association. They consist of men and women enrolled similarly to the members of brigades. It is desirable that each section of the men's company should include, where practicable, carpenters (or joiners or

mechanics), cooks, and clerks; and that the nurses' section should possess a complement of cooks and trained nurses. These county associations form a training ground for membership of the voluntary aid detachments organised by the British Red Cross Society, in connection with the Territorial Force. The aim is that each detachment may be organised and trained so as to be capable of being used in time of war, either for connecting the field ambulances with railway lines ("clearing hospitals"), or for rest stations or temporary hospitals ("stationary hospitals") along routes of evacuation, or to afford supplementary aid to clearing hospitals in advance of them and nearing the scene of action.

America, Colonisation in.—(See also COLONISATION.) The United States of America during ten months of 1910 took 134,759 British subjects. Many artisans and others leave the British Empire to find lucrative work under this foreign flag. The ports are jealously guarded against any undesirables, and only the very best of our artisans are welcomed. Some 27,000 immigrants of all nationalities were refused permission to land in America during the same period. The Argentine Republic absorbed a fair number of the 13,486 proceeding to "other foreign countries," but it is to the British Empire that our social workers will turn chiefly, not only for patriotic reasons, but also because of the British moral standard, the atmosphere of high ideals, which counts for something when men are deciding to transfer their homes and children to far away States.

Analyst.—(See PUBLIC ANALYST.)

Animals, Cruelty to.—By the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1849, any person who cruelly beats, ill-treats, overdrives, abuses, or tortures, or causes or procures to be cruelly

beaten, ill-treated, overdriven, or tortured any animal is liable to be fined £5 for every such offence. Animal is defined to mean "any horse, mare, gelding, bull, ox, cow, heifer, steer, calf, mule, ass, sheep, lamb, hog, pig, sow, goat, dog, cat, or any other domestic animal." The Act does not cover wild animals kept in captivity, which are protected by another statute passed in 1900. The Act of 1849 authorises the prosecution of any person who causes unnecessary pain or suffering to animals in course of transit. The law to deal with the trade in worn-out horses has been strengthened by an Act passed in 1910, by authorising the inspection of the ships on which they are taken away, and attaching responsibility for their condition to the masters. "Every person who shall keep or use or act in the management of any place for the purpose of fighting or baiting any bull, bear, badger, dog, cock, or other kind of animal, whether of domestic or wild nature," or allows any place to be used for that purpose is liable to a penalty of £5 per day. Some difficulty has been found in applying this section to various sports which are considered to involve cruelty. Vivisection is regulated by an Act passed in 1876. Assistance may be obtained in dealing with any act of cruelty by prompt application to the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (*q.v.*) (Jermyn Street, S.W.). A constable has the right to summon a veterinary surgeon to certify that an animal is in such a condition that it is cruel to keep it alive, and then to order its slaughter if the owner is absent or refuses to consent to the destruction of the animal.

Animals' Diseases. — (See also CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF ANIMALS ACT, 1894.) Knowledge as to the diseases of animals and their connection with man is—with few

exceptions—still in a backward state. Now that hydrophobia is extinct in England, there is no good reason for supposing that the common domestic animals (cats, dogs, fowls, and rabbits) communicate any diseases directly, though they may carry infection in the same way that clothes do. Horses with glanders occasionally infect their keepers, and cattle and their hides may give anthrax; but these diseases are rare in man. Insects, such as flies, fleas, and mosquitos, have lately been shown to be potent for evil as conveyers of various infections. Plague in man is caught from the rat, through the rat's fleas. Scarlet fever, diphtheria, and, perhaps, enteric fever is conveyed from cows to man by milk, but the condition of the animal which makes it infectious is very imperfectly known. The milk and meat of tuberculous cattle are liable to cause consumption in those partaking of it, especially in children. This risk is not great, and is entirely avoided by boiling the milk and thoroughly cooking the meat.

Animals, Keeping of,—(See also ANIMALS' DISEASES and NUISANCES.) Any animal kept so as to be injurious to health is a nuisance under the Public Health Act (*q.v.*). Animals may not be kept in bakehouses (*q.v.*), nor—in London—in any places where food is prepared for sale. Swine must not be kept in London within 40 yards of a street or public place, and bye-laws may be made elsewhere to the same effect.

Dogs may not be kept without a licence, and a similar regulation for cats would be a humane and sanitary measure, for in poor districts they are a frequent cause of nuisance. The keeping of fowls and rabbits is often complained of, and the former gives rise to fleas, unless kept with scrupulous cleanliness. If this is done, however, they afford

an interesting occupation and recreation, and can do no harm.

Annual Charities' Register and Digest.—The social worker, especially in London, should always have easy access to this book, published by the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). A copy is to be found in all the local offices of this Society, and many of the local committees are willing to sell the copy of the previous year for 2s. 6d. to any worker who cannot well afford to pay 5s. annually for a new copy. The book is composed of an introduction, and a register of charities classified according to their objects. An index helps the reader to discover any charity about which he may need brief and general information. The introduction, which is revised annually, contains valuable information on many subjects in which the social worker is interested. It deals with the relations of voluntary charities with the Poor Law. It gives advice as to the treatment of all the various classes and types of poor who may appeal to the social worker for relief. It gives an account of the duties of the different local authorities. It discusses the more important Acts of Parliament dealing with the lives of the poor. It gives a list of books of reference which may help the worker. It contains also a series of short articles on special subjects, written by expert workers, in which various social problems are described and briefly discussed. The whole is written from the point of view of the Charity Organisation Society, and advocates the views and methods of that society. The register aims at excluding all fraudulent institutions and societies, and endeavours to give information about charities and institutions dealing with social work.

Anthrax.—(See ANIMALS' DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Anti-Tuberculosis Dispensary System.—(See also PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION and SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.) The Dispensaries for the Prevention of Consumption, which are now being established in England, are modelled on the lines of the Royal Victoria Dispensary for Consumption in Edinburgh, which was founded in 1887, and has thus been in practical operation for more than twenty years. During the ten years from 1897 to 1906 the death-rate from consumption in Edinburgh has fallen from 19 to 11 per 10,000, a reduction of 42·1 per cent.; while the death-rate in London, which was 17 per 10,000 in 1897, fell during the same period to 14 per 10,000, or 17·65 per cent.

No less than two-thirds of the deaths from consumption are among persons between the ages of twenty and fifty—the wage-earning period of life, so that an enormous economic loss to the community is involved. Consumption is infectious, is preventable, and, if treated early enough, is curable.

The Anti-Tuberculosis Dispensary Scheme rests on the principle that it is not enough to treat the consumptive poor who present themselves, with more or less advanced disease, at the out-patient department of an hospital. For the control of the disease, much more is needful. The patient must be followed to his home. The essential feature of the Edinburgh system is that the doctor visits every home from which a patient comes to the dispensary: (a) to see that his instructions as to the precautions necessary to prevent the infection of others are being carried out; (b) to improve, as far as possible, the home conditions; (c) to search for traces of infection among the other members of the patient's family. The home visit leads to the detection of numerous cases in the early and still curable stages of the disease.

A trained nurse also visits the homes to see that the patients are following out the instructions they have received. The dispensary concerns itself not merely with the treatment of the individual patient, but also acts as a centre round which the whole organisation for the prevention and cure of consumption is grouped. From the completeness of their knowledge of the patient, as regards both his physical state and home conditions, the doctors are able to choose cases suitable for sanatoria and Farm Colonies, and cases suitable for hospitals (*q.v.*) and Homes for the Dying (*q.v.*).

The dispensaries work in close co-operation with the medical officers of health (*q.v.*), the hospitals (*q.v.*), the guardians (*q.v.*), the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), health societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS), the Invalid Children's Aid Association (*q.v.*), district nurses (see DISTRICT NURSING), and others. No "letters" or introduction are required from applicants at the dispensary. No friction of any sort has arisen or is likely to arise, as the dispensary makes it a rule not to prescribe for any patient who is under the care of a medical man, except with his consent or at his request.

Three dispensaries have already been opened by voluntary effort in London: the Paddington and Kensington Dispensary at 20, Talbot Road, W., was opened in January, 1909; the St. Marylebone Dispensary for the Prevention of Consumption at 15, Allsop Place, Baker Street, W., was opened in November, 1910, and The Stepney Dispensary on May 1st, 1911.

Several cities in England are taking the matter up, and it seems likely that in the near future, London—like New York, Berlin, and other great cities—will have her

network of anti-tuberculosis dispensaries.

To meet the difficulty of raising funds in the poorer boroughs of London, a Central Fund for the Promotion of the Dispensary System has been started, with Sir Alexander Henderson, Bart., 18, Arlington Street, as its treasurer.

For a full account of this system, the worker should read an article published in *Public Health*, August, 1910, by D. J. Williamson, M.D., which has been reprinted, and can be obtained from the Hon. Sec., Paddington and Kensington Dispensary for the Prevention of Consumption, 20, Talbot Road, W.

Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association.—(See also BOY LABOUR, BOYS' COUNTRY WORK SOCIETY, NATIONAL INSTITUTION OF APPRENTICESHIP and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.) The formation of the Association in 1905 was due to the recognition of the harm done to youth and the effect upon unemployment (*q.v.*) of the indiscriminate drifting of boys and girls into "blind-alley" (*q.v.*) occupations. The aim of the Association was to emphasize the fact that one method of remedying the existing state of affairs was the revival of apprenticeship. Its object, therefore, has been "the promotion of thorough industrial training for boys and girls, by apprenticeship and other methods, including arrangements for attendance at trade schools and at technical classes. The Central Office exists to bring together into co-operation the local agencies by receiving, co-ordinating, and supplementing, when necessary, the industrial information obtained by the local committees and giving affiliated committees access to all such information. The central organisation also encourages the formation of new committees by

acquainting their promoters with the methods of those already in existence, and supplying them with the industrial information already at their disposal. It also endeavours to arouse public interest in the objects of the Association by the dissemination of literature and organisation of meetings.

The work of the Association is carried on by means of local committees, which are closely in touch with the elementary schools (*q.v.*) and working boys' and girls' clubs (*q.v.*) in their respective districts. The committees collect information as to the vacancies available, find suitable openings for boys and girls who apply to them for help, and make terms between the employer and the apprentice or "learner" with a view to securing fair conditions to the employee and satisfactory workers to the employer. The work of the committee, if it is to be done thoroughly, involves a considerable amount of knowledge of the abilities and character of the boys and girls. It is not sufficient that the employer should require a lad and that the committee supply one who will "do." It is most important that the committee should be in a position to secure that the best boy available has the chance to fill the vacancy. It is not easy to persuade either the young people or their parents of the value of apprenticeship, which involves low initial earnings. Neither recognise that, later, he will be worth more as an adult. Persuasion is necessary also to induce employers to take apprentices. The committees have in some cases paid premiums on behalf of the boys and girls. The chief part of their work lies in apprenticing boys and girls, but they have acted as a general employment registry. By so doing they have contributed to the solution of a difficult problem, as their work has led to the desire for further

organisation in the same direction. The committees have worked in conjunction with the Labour Exchanges, but a short experience was sufficient to show that the co-operation of the education authorities was indispensable. The Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, gives power to local education authorities (*q.v.*) to expend money upon making arrangements "for giving to boys and girls, under seventeen years of age, assistance with respect to the choice of suitable employment, by means of the collection and the communication of information and the furnishing of advice." The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, (*q.v.*), in their report upon continuation schools (*q.v.*) in 1909, suggested the lines upon which to organise the work. They recommended "the establishment of a Junior Employment Registry, the officers of which should collect and keep up-to-date information as to the wages in different industries and callings, and as to the conditions and prospects of employment in them. From such a registry, teachers, parents, school managers, and voluntary workers among the poor would be able to obtain accurate information which would enable them to guide children wisely in the choice of employment, and (what is not less important) to advise them as to the course of further education which would best enable them to attain a higher grade of efficiency, and to become qualified for the more responsible grades of employment." The committee urged that the work of these Junior Employment Registries should be aided from public funds, but they held "not less strongly that in their organisation and management voluntary effort should be utilised, and that, so far as possible, their

committees of management should enjoy the independence which comes from voluntary effort." A working arrangement has been made between the Association and the London Juvenile Advisory Committee by which co-operation is secured, as in all areas where Apprenticeship Committees exist the business of advising boys and girls as to Apprenticeship is undertaken by them.

Art Classes.—(See SCHOOLS OF ART.)

Artificial Flowers, Manufacture of.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION and TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Artificial Respiration.—The method of restoring animation to the apparently dead is among the useful matters learnt in a course of ambulance lectures (see AMBULANCE WORK). The information may also be obtained from books on the subject, but its simplest and most economical form is a leaflet supplied gratuitously by the Royal Humane Society (*q.v.*). The leaflet describes in detail Dr. Silvester's method, with diagrams. The St. John's Ambulance Brigade (*q.v.*) also publish a card, with directions to restore the apparently drowned.

Artisans' Dwellings.—(See also BUILDING BYE-LAWS, HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL DWELLINGS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL and OVER-CROWDING.) The term "artisans' dwellings" is used to describe the various so-called "model" dwellings erected either by municipalities, or more generally by companies, associations, and trusts in connection with the Artisan Dwellings Act, for the accommodation of working men in London and other large centres of population. In effect they are generally Block Dwellings (*q.v.*), but some are what are called tenement houses. The

latter usually consist of two and three-storey buildings, arranged in rows like ordinary houses, and containing from two to six families in each house. They are intermediate between the cottage and the block dwelling, and, as a rule, one main entrance serves for several families.

The Artisans' Dwellings Company, formed in 1867, has raised £2,500,000 for the construction and management of cheap, healthy, working class dwellings, mainly in the form of cottages, allowing only a limited rate of interest (5 per cent.) on its capital. Most of the companies providing artisans' dwellings have borrowed half the money for erecting their dwellings under Section 67 of the Housing Act of 1890.

Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society.—The objects of the Society are to hold exhibitions of contemporary original work in decorative design and handicraft, and to arrange for the delivery of lectures whereby the worker may have an opportunity to demonstrate to the public the aptitudes and limitations of his craft. The Society consists of craftsmen in decorative design and handicraft. The exhibitions, limited to work done in the last twenty years, consist of designs, cartoons, and working drawings, decorative painting, textiles and needlework, glass, pottery, metal work, carving and modelling, plaster work, cabinet work, book decoration, printing and binding, wall papers and leather work. The exhibitions are not held for profit, but any surplus goes to meet the general expenses of the Society. (See also EDUCATIONAL HANDWORK ASSOCIATION.)

Assessment Committees.—These committees are appointed (a) in London, one by the Common Council (*q.v.*) of the City, some by boards of guardians (*q.v.*), and others by metropolitan borough councils (*q.v.*); (b) out of London, by boards of guardians. They

settle, subject to certain rights of appeal, the valuation lists, on the basis of which most local rates are levied (see VALUATION). Few appeals, however, are necessary, as the committees themselves are empowered to hear and determine objections to valuation lists.

Associated Societies for the Protection of Women and Children (Albion Chambers, 60, Haymarket, S.W.).—The Associated Societies were formed, in 1892, through the amalgamation of two societies: the Associate Institution for Improving and Enforcing the Laws for the Protection of Women, founded in 1844, and the Society for the Protection of Women and Children, founded in 1857, whose work had for some time been overlapping. The Societies confine their activity to London and its immediate neighbourhood, but they are anxious and willing to encourage and help forward the formation of similar societies in the provinces. Their work is to give legal advice to women who have been ill-treated or deserted by their husbands or other men. They also take action to enforce the laws which exist for the protection of women. They deal with assaults, neglect, desertion, and like offences committed by drinking and vicious husbands against their wives. The Societies also help women to gain affiliation orders. The social worker in London who discovers women either ill-treated or deserted should urge immediate application to these Societies for advice, though not for charitable relief.

Association for Befriending Boys (7, Adam Street, Strand, W.C.).—Boys educated in Poor Law Guardians' Schools (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW) usually leave school at the age of fourteen. In very many cases such boys have lived in institutions which have sheltered them from the temptations of the world outside,

and at the same time rendered them unfit to face these temptations. Often the boys' experience of the world before they enter the school will only be a hindrance to them when they leave it. The Guardians acting unofficially (see GUARDIANS, VOLUNTEER WORK OF), can be and often are of great service to such boys. But this kind of work is more effective when organised and controlled by a Society. In 1898, therefore, the Association for Befriending Boys was founded by the late Rev. Brooke Lambert and Mrs. Eaton Lascelles, to undertake the after-care of boys discharged from the schools belonging to the guardians of all the Metropolitan unions. This Association cares for and supervises these boys from the time of leaving school until the age of twenty. Boys who are in such institutions as Working Boys' Homes (*q.v.*) and the training-ship *Exmouth* do not come exclusively under the care of the Association until they leave the homes, usually at the age of seventeen. The Boards of Guardians of thirty-three unions in London, with the consent of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) contribute to the support of the Association, and send representatives to its Council. The Association, although specially praised by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws (see POOR LAW REFORM), and commended in a circular of the Local Government Board in June, 1910, has not received adequate public support, and is seriously hampered by the smallness of its income. Were the Association better supported, it would be able to find work for its unemployed boys, to assist others to emigrate (see COLONISATION), and to establish homes for unemployed boys and for those over seventeen who have no respectable home. The work of the Association is carried on by means of

voluntary district secretaries, who endeavour to find friends for the boys and to introduce them to clergy and ministers. The secretaries, who are often guardians, keep in touch with, and visit the boys. When the boys go to places in which the Association has no secretary, they are cared for by the central officials, through local clergy or anyone who can be found to take an interest in them. Such work as that of this Association may well be extended to all the large towns of England.

Association for Promoting the General Welfare of the Blind.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Association for Promoting the Training and Supply of Midwives.—(See MIDWIVES.)

Association of Health Workers (53, Berners Street, W.).—This Association is closely connected with the National Health Society (*q.v.*), and its members are engaged in work which that Society exists to promote. The objects of the Association are the improvement, instruction, and mutual encouragement of its members. The Association organises bi-annual meetings of its members for discussion and interchange of suggestions bearing upon experience gained in their work. In May or June of each year courses of advanced lectures are given to the members by experts in the different departments of sanitary science and hygiene. The members of the Association are usually those who hold the diploma of the National Health Society, or are accredited lecturers of that Society, although the Association holds itself free to invite other health workers to become members on payment of an annual subscription of 2s. 6d. A list of the present members shows how varied are their occupation, and how wide a field of instruction the lectures

must cover. By means of social meetings held quarterly, the members are enabled to discuss difficulties and points of professional interest, and so gain knowledge through the variety of their work and experience.

Association of Parochial Relief Committees.—(See PAROCHIAL RELIEF COMMITTEES.)

Association of Subscribers to Charities.—(See SOCIAL WELFARE ASSOCIATION.)

Association of the Ladies of Charity.—Founded nearly 300 years ago in the little village of Chatillon, by St. Vincent de Paul, the Association of the Ladies of Charity has lasted—with an interval, during the revolutionary and imperialist eras in France—till our own day. There are now 57,000 ladies of charity, of whom 48,000 are working outside France.

The Association is essentially religious, and aims at training and guarding Roman Catholics within their Church. The Ladies work in close co-operation with the Missionary Priests and Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul, and, though themselves living in the world, are bound by a simple rule of life. But "while advocating this spiritual foundation, St. Vincent was not vague or unpractical; on the contrary, he thought want of method and order a very great evil, and he was determined that his Association should have as perfect an organisation as possible" (see *The Association of the Ladies of Charity*, by Lady Edmund Talbot, Edinburgh, 1910). So there are presidents, secretaries, treasurers, members both active and honorary; and meetings are held in London, at the Convent, Carlisle Place, Westminster. The Association supports settlements (*q.v.*), mothers' meetings (*q.v.*), boys', girls', and children's clubs (*q.v.*), training colleges, homes, etc., etc. Two

special branches of its work are scholarship classes for Roman Catholic children; and retreats for poor women, girls and children, and also for teachers. These retreats are held at the Cenacle Convent, Stamford Hill, and are well attended. On general lines, the Association co-operates with other societies, *e.g.*, Holiday and Convalescent Funds, Children's Happy Evenings, Care Committees, and many others.

Among the many other Roman Catholic societies engaged in social work, one of the most active is the Catholic Women's League (28, Ashley Place, S.W.), as to the work of which details may be obtained from the Secretary.

Association of Trained Charwomen.—This Association works in connection with the Women's Industrial Council (*q.v.*). Its aim is to provide well-paid employment for charwomen, for whom it provides a course of training under a certificated teacher of domestic economy. The fee for the course is 10s. The members of the Association are respectable women of proved capabilities and efficiency, who work for a fixed scale of wages as charwomen, stop-gap servants, or caretakers.

Association of Workhouse Aid Societies.—(See RESCUE WORK and WORKHOUSE GIRLS' AID COMMITTEES.)

Associations of Public Welfare.—(See COUNCILS OF SOCIAL WELFARE.)

Asylums Committees.—(See LUNATIC ASYLUMS.)

Attendance at School.—The Elementary Education Act, 1876, enacts that it is "the duty of the parent of any child to cause such child to receive elementary education." The child must be sent to school at the age of five years, and retained there in accordance with the school attendance bye-laws made by the local education authority (*q.v.*). The reasons

allowed by the Act for non-attendance are (1) that there is not a school within two miles of the child's residence, and (2) "that the absence of the child from school has been caused by sickness or any unavoidable cause." The local education authorities appoint attendance officers to enforce the Act. Usually several warnings are given before proceedings are taken before a magistrate against the parent. A "reasonable excuse," other than those allowed by the Act, may be made for non-attendance of the child. If a child is sent to school but plays truant, it seems that the parent has not "a reasonable excuse," and an attendance order must be made against him. In the case of a girl of twelve who had received a certain amount of elementary instruction and was sent to work because without her earnings the parents were unable to maintain the remainder of the family, it was decided that they had a "reasonable excuse" for her non-attendance at school. A parent, who is a member of the Church of England, and withdraws his child from school on Ascension Day, in order to send him to church, renders himself liable in no way to any penalty, because it is "a day exclusively set apart for religious observance" by that Church. At the age of twelve years a child may obtain partial exemption from school attendance, if such child has made 300 attendances in not more than two schools during each year, for five preceding years, whether consecutive or not. In some parts of the country special bye-laws are made for children employed in agriculture.

Audit.—(See ACCOUNTS: AUDIT.)

Australia, Colonisation in.—(See also COLONISATION.) This great continent, twice the size of China (400 million) and of India (340 million) still has but $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of people! It is made up of six

states, each of which invites settlers. Though there is a Commonwealth Office in London (72, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.), yet each State has its own agent-general, office, and differing rates of fares. The best information is that supplied by the handbooks of the Emigration Committee of the Colonial Office. The passages are varied; Tasmania has no assisted passages—a full £17 is charged for all third-class emigrants. South Australia is now offering nominated passages to certain clearly defined persons at a rate of £4. Queensland also offers passages for £5 (wife and children free) to agriculturists with small capital (£60 and upwards). Certain classes, such as *bona fide* farm hands and domestic servants, can obtain, with patience, assisted passages to Western Australia, New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. Nominated passages are also granted. As the details differ much from time to time, it seems better to get the latest and most reliable from 31, Broadway, S.W.

Western Australia (Fremantle and Albany are the ports of landing) may be reached in five weeks by the Orient Line proceeding *via* the Suez Canal, or in six weeks *via* the Cape by the Aberdeen, White Star, and Lund Lines. Nobody who has seen the vast wheatfields, the vineyards, and orange-orchards of this State will doubt the fact that a great future lies before it. Better than the gold which is being plentifully found within 300 miles of Perth is the more enduring wealth which abides in the rich soil. Men having capital will find it best always to go into farms for a year as labourers and learners, before they "take up land." Others, with only muscle and good grit, will earn £1 a week and their board after three months' experience. The heat is great during two months—January and Febru-

ary—but there is generally a cool breeze at evening, which ensures sleep. As the agricultural land is taken up—and there remain two great tracts, each as large as England, Scotland, and Wales—the towns will require builders, bakers, and artisans of all kinds. But, for ten years, there is only a real call for farmers and farm hands; others go at a risk of workless months.

Much the same description applies to South Australia—one of the very richest States in the Empire, with a population hardly equal to that of Sheffield! Men and lads can, if adaptable, always earn 15s. to £1 a week and all found, at farm work. Artisans may also find profitable work, as the towns are growing with the power of the gold made in the rich corn areas. The great "head-piece" of South Australia, a vast tract of tropical land called "the Northern Territory," has now been taken over by the Federal Government, and will, it is presumed, be worked by them.

Victoria, one of the smallest of the States, but containing the splendid city of Melbourne, the temporary seat of the Commonwealth Government, is a prosperous and progressive State. Far up in the plains are cattle and horse-breeding farms, fruit orchards, great wheat areas, mines for all sorts of minerals. The Victorian Government are preparing irrigation farms for new settlers, whereon are built small houses suitable for families. Great plains, which were reckoned as "desert," are found to possess stores of subterranean springs, whence reservoirs are being filled and preserved for the days of drought. It is said that drought—which has hitherto been the terrible scourge of the Australian hinterland—can never again have the like power. Nine or ten years have elapsed since the last rainless season, and in 1909 there was the

greatest rainfall known on the whole continent.

Tasmania is reached from Melbourne by a fourteen hours' passage over the Straits to Launceston. The beautiful river Tamar, up which the steamer proceeds when leaving the open sea, reminds all Englishmen of the West Country rivers at home. It is indicative of the English and pastoral and settled character of the whole island. Tasmania is nearly the size of Ireland, and has a population of 280,000. There is no part of the Empire which, for varied scenery, equable temperature, and pastoral beauty, can surpass this Australian State. Retired officers or civil servants, men with small capital, miners with strong muscles and good health, will find in Tasmania a beautiful as well as a prosperous home. There is no room for much agricultural labour, as the hustling spirit of the Continent has, up to now, left this English community untouched. The slow progress of the island is partly due to the great extent of the "stations," grants of large areas having been made to induce Englishmen to settle. There is a movement all through the Commonwealth to purchase some of these great properties at a fair price, and to cut them up into farms of 200 or 300 acres, so as to increase the numbers of actual owners of the soil. A special tax has also been placed on all land used only for sheep or cattle, so as to induce the owners to part with their undeveloped possession. Men with capital (£1,000 down to £100) will find some fine freehold fruit land in Tasmania, out of which energy and ability can earn an excellent return.

New South Wales, which is centred round the fine city and harbour of Sydney, is the oldest State, and perhaps the chief "market" of Australasia. Here are the

ships from all parts of the East and West; here, also, are the great battleships lying close to the wooded shore in water 40 ft. deep. To Sydney go the larger number of British immigrants to be absorbed in the almost limitless stretch of good agricultural and pastoral land in the North and West. During 1909, a few private citizens placed a sum of £50,000 in the hands of trustees to provide some solid training in farming for British lads. These farms (called "Dreadnoughts," after the original destination of the gift of money) are now open to lads over seventeen, and not over twenty-one. A free training for three months is given, but no free fares nor assisted passages are available. Details may be had from the Secretary of the Colonial Institute Emigration Committee. There is abundance of work on dairy, arable, sheep, and fruit farms; but, up to this, few openings for obtaining freehold land. The new Government (October, 1910) promises a "closer settlement" Act to prepare for the large number of potential farmers which the "Dreadnought" farms will train. Work in the towns for clerks, typists, artisans, etc., is precarious; but as the farm-population increases, there will be greater openings for artisans.

Queensland is a tropical country, with a trying climate. The winter is most beautiful. There is here, too, an open door for agricultural labour of all kinds, and much encouragement to proceed to ownership. Special and assisted passages are granted, and the Government is seriously bidding in England for a large number of emigrants. The Orient Line steamers go direct from Tilbury Docks to Brisbane, taking some forty-five to fifty days to do the run.

To sum up, Australia presents one of the very best fields for emigration. It has a wonderful climate and rich soil, a thoroughly British

character, and owes a large part of its success to English capital and enterprise. The *choice* of emigrants is important. People unused to loneliness, who cannot amuse themselves, who cannot face a year or two's rough experiences should not be sent. There is in Australia a great army of "Sundowners" or nomads, wandering from farm to farm, the terror and despair of all social reformers. This army is frequently recruited from unsuitable British immigrants—persons who can settle to nothing, but literally are parasites, living on the community. The towns of Australia abound with the results of our colonising mistakes. Town-bred lads, men ignorant of a spade or plough, used only to the pavements and the music-hall, as a rule find the back blocks unendurable. Homes must be made and families encouraged before Australia becomes a hive of British workers. There are some arrangements made at Sydney and Melbourne for "meeting, greeting, and distributing" the immigrants, but private enterprise and philanthropists have much yet to do before our British men and women can all be heartily and properly welcomed. The Roman Catholics, the Methodists, and, lately, the Church of England provide officers at Sydney to meet their own people. Much remains to be done by the religious bodies at Fremantle, Adelaide, Melbourne, and Brisbane. Especially do girl immigrants require the greatest care and attention in the best interests of the State. Homes or lodges where girls may go on arrival and during intervals of service, ought to be provided in each town and subsidised by the Government. Home-making is the highest work in every State: and what the women are, such will be the homes.

The following are the names and addresses of the official agents resident in London :—

High Commissioner : 72, Victoria Street, S.W. West Australia (Agent General) : 15, Victoria Street, S.W. Tasmania (Agent General) : 5, Victoria Street, S.W. South Australia (Agent General) : 85, Gracechurch Street, E.C. Queensland (Agent General) : 409, Strand, W.C. Victoria (Agent General) : Melbourne Place, Strand, W.C. New South Wales (Agent General) : 123, Cannon Street, E.C.

Babies (See DAY NURSERIES, INFANT LIFE PROTECTION, and INFANT MORTALITY).

Bail.—If the officer in charge of a police station accepts the charge preferred against a prisoner, it is his duty to detain him until he can be brought before a competent court, but the law gives the officer a discretionary power by which, except in grave offences, the prisoner is merely kept at the station house until bail is arranged. In the case of a "common drunk," that procedure only involves that, when he has slept himself sober, he is discharged on his own recognisance. For all minor offences, bail is compulsory if the person in custody without a warrant cannot be taken before a magistrate within twenty-four hours. The amount, and whether sureties must be joined with the prisoner, is a matter for the discretion of the police, in order that they may be sure of producing their prisoner at the next sitting of the court. Sureties may be called upon to prove that they are householders by their receipts for their rates and taxes, or otherwise show that they are persons of respectability and substance. If persons in custody are willing to pay for a messenger or telegram to send for bail, the officer is to make the necessary arrangements; or if the prisoner has no money, a message may be sent by the police. A

person charged with drunkenness, coupled with any other offence for which bail may be taken, may be admitted to bail though still apparently drunk, if his sureties undertake to have proper care taken of him until sober.

When a prisoner has been brought before a magistrate (see ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE), the grant of a bail is within his discretion, but the general procedure is to allow it, and also when the prisoner is sent for trial by a higher court, except when there is reason to believe that the prisoner would not appear, or the gravity of the offence leaves no alternative to his detention in custody.

Bailiff.—The most familiar use of the word is in application to the official of the County Court, whose duties are to serve all summonses and orders, and, with some exceptions, to execute all warrants, precepts, and writs issued by the court. The portion of his duties with which the social worker may be brought into contact is the levying of distress (*q.v.*), and in case it may be thought that there is any irregularity, it should be remembered that he is an official of the court to which application may be made for information.

Bakehouses.—A bakehouse in which mechanical power is used in the process of baking is a factory, and under the control of factory inspectors (*q.v.*). In retail bakehouses (*i.e.*, where power is not used) the sanitary provisions are administered by the district council, and the regulations as to education, hours of work, and meal times by the factory inspector. In addition to the general law, all bakehouses are subject to certain special regulations:—

1. A place underground, with the floor more than 3 ft. below the footway of the adjoining street (see UNDERGROUND WORKROOMS), may not be used as a bakehouse unless it

was so used before the end of 1901, and unless it is certified as suitable by the district council; the occupier has, however, the right of appeal to a court of summary jurisdiction. No provision is made for the withdrawal of the certificate if the place does not continue to comply with the council's requirements.

2. No water-closet or cistern or pipe connected therewith may be within or communicate directly with the bakehouse.

3. Bakehouses must be lime-washed, or, if varnished, must be washed every six months.

4. Sleeping places must be effectually separated from bakehouses, and must have a window of 9 superficial feet, half of which must open.

5. Children, young persons, and women may be employed overtime, in incomplete processes, for half an hour at the end of the day; but this extension must not raise the total hours of employment in the week above that allowed by the Act (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901).

6. The provisions that meal-times shall be simultaneous, and that no child, young person, or woman shall be allowed to remain in a room during meal-times where work is being done, do not apply to factory bakehouses (see FACTORIES, MEALS IN).

Balcony Dwellings.—(See BLOCK DWELLINGS.)

Ball Covering.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Bands of Mercy.—(See ROYAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO ANIMALS.)

Banns of Marriages.—(See HUSBAND AND WIFE.)

Barbers' Shops, Boys Employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Barnado's Homes.—(See COLONISATION, CHILD and WAIFS AND STRAYS.)

Barrack Schools.—(See CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.)

Basket-making.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE, and TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Bastardy.—(See also RESCUE WORK.) A bastard or illegitimate child is one who is born out of wedlock. The child of an unmarried woman is illegitimate; so is the child of a married woman by a man who is not her husband, or of a widow if the child is born so long after her husband's death as to preclude the possibility of his being the child of both. Subsequent marriage of the mother and the putative father does not legitimise the child unless the father is domiciled in a country which recognises this means of legitimation. A bastard takes the domicile of his mother, but a legitimate child that of its father.

The law of bastardy, so far as the social worker is usually brought into contact with it, relates mainly to the recovery by the mother of the cost of maintaining a bastard child from its father. Before an order can be made against the father, it is necessary for the child to have been born alive, but an application may be made to a justice of the peace by an expectant mother before the birth, or by a mother at any time within twelve months after the birth. If the application be made before the birth, the mother must swear a deposition stating the name of the father. She may also apply in the case where the father has paid money for the child's maintenance within twelve months after the birth, or where the man has ceased to reside in England within twelve months after the birth and has subsequently returned to England. In the latter case the application must be made within twelve months of his return.

Any single woman, or a married woman living apart from her husband, may apply, but not a woman who has married after the birth and

who is living with her husband. If the justice is satisfied that these preliminaries have been complied with, he then issues a summons against the alleged father. When the application is made in respect of an unborn child, he should summon the man to appear at petty sessions to be held after the time when the mother expects to be delivered, and this date may be adjourned to any petty sessions held within two months of the birth. When the application is in respect of a child already born, the summons must give the alleged father six clear days' notice. This application cannot be made to any justice of the peace; he must be a justice acting for the petty sessional division in which the mother resides.

The hearing of the summons is before a court of petty sessions, and must be within forty days of the date of the summons. The mother must be present and give evidence. The defendant's presence is unnecessary, provided that it is proved that the summons was served upon him six clear days before the hearing. The mother's evidence must be corroborated in some material particular. When the justices have heard the evidence in support of the application, and any evidence adduced for the defence, they give their decision whether or not the defendant is the father of the child. If they decide that he is the father, they *may* order him to pay to the mother, or to a person appointed to receive such payment:—

(a) A weekly sum not exceeding 5s., which may be calculated from the date of the birth until the child shall be thirteen years old; but the justices may, in their discretion, direct that the order shall remain in force for any longer period not exceeding three years.

(b) Any expenses incidental to the birth.

(c) Any expenses incidental to

the funeral of the child, if it has died before the order is made.

(d) The costs of the proceedings.

The order remains in force for the time stated therein, unless the child dies; and the payment is to be made to the mother while she lives, and is of sound mind and not in prison or penal servitude. But if the child becomes at any time chargeable to the Poor Law Guardians, the payments are to be made to them. The order is put an end to on the death of the father.

The defendant may appeal to quarter sessions against the decision of the justices, but in doing so he must comply with the conditions laid down in the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1844 (Sec. 4), and the Bastardy Laws Amendment Act, 1872 (Sec. 9). No appeal is allowed on the part of the mother if the justices decide against her.

The following rules apply when the defendant is a soldier:—

(1) When he is quartered in another petty sessional division to that in which proceedings are taken, the summons must be served on his commanding officer with whom must be deposited a sum sufficient to defray the defendant's expenses of coming and going.

(2) If an order is made against him, a copy thereof must be sent to the Secretary of State, who may order a certain sum to be deducted from his daily pay.

(3) No proceedings may be taken against a soldier on foreign service or under orders for foreign service (Army Act, 1881, sec. 145).

When a bastard child becomes chargeable to the Guardians, they may proceed under the Bastardy Laws Amendment Act, 1872 (s. 7), in order to recover expenses incurred by them in respect of such child; this section applies to cases in which an order has been made on the application of the mother. If no order has been made, the

Guardians may proceed against the alleged father under Section 5 of the Bastardy Laws Amendment Act, 1873.

Baths and Washhouses.—The Acts relating to the supply by local authorities of baths and washhouses are adoptive (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT). The Act may be adopted for any borough or other urban district, or for any rural parish. Shower baths or vapour baths may be provided as well as ordinary baths with hot or cold water, and there seems to be nothing to prohibit the provision under the Acts of baths in the nature of Turkish baths, if this class of bath be needed in the district. Bye-laws (*q.v.*) may be made for the management of the baths, including the duties of the attendants and the conduct of the bathers. The charges both for the baths and washhouses are fixed by Act of Parliament. If the receipts do not cover the expenses, which usually happens, the deficit may be made good out of the rates. During the winter months, from November to March, any covered or open swimming bath may be used as a gymnasium or for any other healthy form of recreation, for the supervision of which officers may be appointed by the local authority. A music and dancing licence may be granted for the building, provided that it is only let occasionally and that no money is taken at the doors, but tickets of admission to an entertainment may be sold beforehand.

Bead-workers.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Bedding, Manufacture of.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Begging.—The extent to which begging is a prosperous occupation (see VAGRANTS) is due largely to the pernicious practice of indiscriminate almsgiving, by which people respond

to a pathetic appeal without inquiry and imagine that they have done a charitable act. In many instances, it would be far more useful if they would act as witnesses in proceeding against the beggar, who, under the Vagrancy Act, may be brought before a magistrate and charged with being in a public place for the purpose of gathering alms, rendering himself liable to imprisonment for fourteen days. The usual method of eluding the Act is by making a pretence of offering some article for sale. The beggar knows that if he is accompanied by a child his takings are higher, and the law properly makes the harmful effect upon the child to be an additional offence. By the Children Act, 1908, any person who "causes or procures any child or young person, or, having the custody, charge, or care" of any child under sixteen years of age, allows that child "to be in any street, premises, or place for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or of inducing the giving of alms, whether or not there is any pretence of singing, playing, performing, offering anything for sale or otherwise," that person shall be liable to a fine of £25 or imprisonment for three months, with or without hard labour (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER).

Societies have been formed for the suppression of mendicity. The chief of these is the London Mendicity Society, founded by the first Duke of Wellington in 1818. They estimate that more than £100,000 per annum is given away to beggars in the streets of London, with the result that many of them receive more than the average working man. The Society has a special staff of constables authorised by the Commissioner of Police, and its complete records of the begging fraternity much facilitates the punishment of offenders. The Society undertakes to investigate

the *bona fides* of begging-letter writers in any part of the kingdom. They consider that about 28 per cent. are downright impostors, a further 59 per cent. are either unhelpable or do not deserve relief, and 13 per cent. are found to deserve assistance, of whom 5 per cent. are very deserving indeed.

The begging-letter writer, concerning whom the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) can often give information, may be prosecuted either under the Vagrancy Act or the Larceny Act. By the latter, the offence is obtaining money by false pretences, and it is no mitigation of the offence that the recipient may know the statements in the letter to be untrue.

Clergy are frequently the victims of impostors, who call upon them and obtain money from them often without actually begging for it. In London, in cases where beggars call at vicarages or the houses of laymen known to be engaged in social work, it is well to ask the beggar for his address. He can then be referred to the vicar of the parish in which he is supposed to live, or sent to the district office of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). If his address is in the immediate neighbourhood, inquiry can be made before relief is given. The most frequent fraudulent beggars are those who need money to pay travelling expenses, or are seeking for lost relatives, or are about to have an epileptic fit, or have been "converted." The more skilled impostors obtain money disguised as hospital nurses, agents of friendly societies, clergy, etc. The only safe course for the social worker is to make a rule never to give any money to any person without first making inquiry.

Benevolent Societies.—(See PENSIONS IN OLD AGE.)

Betting and the Police.—(See also BOOKMAKING and NATIONAL

ANTI-GAMBLING LEAGUE.) The betting duties and powers of the police are not clearly defined, as explained under Betting Laws (*q.v.*). With regard to gaming houses, that is, houses where unlawful games, or betting and gambling, in which the proprietor acts as banker, are carried on, it is undoubtedly the duty and within the powers of the police to suppress them, and of the police authorities to organise raids, if necessary, for the purpose. It is by no means an easy matter, as may be seen by the account written in *Blackwood's Magazine*, of May, 1910, by Sir Robert Anderson, K.C.B., lately the chief of the Criminal Investigation Department. It is said that the good intentions of the principals have occasionally been frustrated by their subordinates, and that keepers of gaming houses have actually been warned of a coming raid by telephone from police officers in the secret. Betting houses (*q.v.*) are safe from the interference of the police if they prevent customers personally resorting to them and decline to receive cash deposits. A similar exemption applies to race-course rings, most illogically, as cash is openly received in them in the presence of policemen specially paid for by the racing authorities to maintain order. Betting houses having branches abroad, which receive cash deposits, ought to be suppressed by the police, in accordance with the Court of Appeal judgment named under Betting Houses (*q.v.*). Since the passing of the Street Betting (*q.v.*) Act in 1906, police powers may be exercised in all athletic grounds, if desired by the proprietors, and as, in some cases, the question of expense has stood in the way of their calling for this assistance, the Home Secretary has issued a notice to the effect that where notices prohibiting betting have been posted, the Com-

missioner of the Metropolitan Police will enforce the Act without charge.

Betting Houses.—Betting houses exist in almost every town of the United Kingdom, and they are very numerous in all the great cities, owing to the imperfection of the Betting Laws (*q.v.*), which deal with severity in cases of offences in *cash* betting, but have been held by the authorities not to apply to such houses, offices, or places where the business is conducted upon credit, provided the customers do not personally resort to the *locale* in question. These customers who are thus not unable to satisfy the betting man as to their credit, either through a bank or otherwise, are necessarily of the well-to-do classes, and the security of the bookmaker is enhanced by the fear of exposure on the part of his client in case of non-payment. There is little doubt, however, that many of these betting houses do receive cash deposits, for which every facility is afforded by the Post Office in the delivery, without examination, of all closed letters, however notorious the betting business may be. So numerous are the letters to some of them, that the department affords facilities by special deliveries and in other ways. It even allows coded addresses to betting houses supposed to be doing a credit business, but having cash remittances purposely sent (to avoid legal consequences) to branches in Holland and elsewhere out of the jurisdiction, notwithstanding the fact that the Court of Appeal unanimously ruled in the cases of *Lennox v. Stoddart* and *Davies v. Stoddart* in 1902, that remittances sent circuitously, whether by foreign parts or elsewhere, still constituted a house a betting house under the Betting House Act of 1853. The executive authorities have hitherto shrunk from grappling with the evils demonstrated

by judicial decisions, and have failed to carry out existing laws against betting houses, or to procure their amendment where inefficient.

Betting Laws.—(See also STREET BETTING.) The Betting or Gaming Laws of this country are in a very unsatisfactory condition. They are severe as to gaming houses kept for profit, but are not systematically and thoroughly applied; they are partial as to betting houses and although perhaps not framed to that end, have been so interpreted as to screen the credit betting of the rich, while hindering the cash betting of the poor. With regard to lotteries, they are altogether chaotic, and in connection with charitable or religious objects raffles are openly flouted in many cases, particularly in Ireland, with the connivance of the authorities. A very lengthy essay would be needed for a complete exposition of the subject, as will be understood by a perusal of the two best handbooks upon the subject: Stutfield's *Law Relating to Betting* and Coldridge & Hawksford's *Law of Gambling*. Even the guidance derived from such works has to be continually modified by the varying decisions in the courts, which will not assume any form of consistency until the nation has decided to suppress bookmaking or professional betting (*q.v.*), as well as all incitements to gambling, particularly those afforded by the newspapers in expensive advertisements and otherwise; and to empower and enforce upon the Post Office the withdrawal of postal facilities from all firms and individuals in betting and gambling businesses. A list of such could be compiled without difficulty, and this particular remedy is being successfully applied in some of the Dominions of the British Empire and in the United States. The principal statutes in force

are the series of Gaming Acts and Lottery Acts to be found in the before-mentioned handbooks; as is also the important Betting House Act of 1853 (16 and 17 Vic. Ch. 119). Section 7 of this Act has been regretfully held by the High Court not to cover the disguisedly worded newspaper advertisements of the present day. Another operative Act of value is the Street Betting (*q.v.*) Act of 1906.

Bibliographies.—The social worker should keep in touch with the best that is thought and said upon social and economic subjects. Whenever it is possible, these subjects should be studied before anyone interested in them becomes a worker. The social worker needs only to be told how to discover the names of the best authorities on different subjects and to be kept informed as to the publication of new books. *What to Read on Social and Economic Subjects*, published at 1s. by the Fabian Society, is a good guide to literature of this kind. For those who can afford it, the *Bibliography of Social Science*, which is the monthly journal of the International Institute of Social Bibliography (2s. net), is a most valuable guide to all the books, pamphlets, reports, and the like published by the Government, learned societies, trade unions, and others. The National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution, 37, Norfolk Street, W.C., has recently started a card-index and "Book Room" of books on social subjects connected especially with the prevention of destitution, public health, unemployment, etc. The National Health Manuals, edited by Dr. T. N. Kelynnack, also contain valuable bibliographies. (See also BRITISH INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SERVICE, CHILD STUDY SOCIETY and ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE.)

Bigamy.—(See HUSBAND AND WIFE.)

Birds, Cruelty to.—By an Act passed in 1854, the Statute of 1849 providing against cruelty to animals (*q.v.*) was extended to include birds, but is limited in the same way as the principal statute, namely, to birds in a domestic state. Wild birds are dealt with by another set of statutes, which permit a certain amount of variation so as to protect the various species of birds identified with different localities. The orders applying the Acts are made by the county councils under the authority of the Secretary of State. The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds is ready to render information and assistance in dealing with this matter.

Birth-rate.—(See also INFANT MORTALITY, and PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS.) The main fact about the birth-rate is its steady diminution during the last thirty or forty years in all highly civilised European countries. In England and Wales it has dropped from an average of 35 per 1,000 living persons in 1876-1880 to 25 in 1909—the lowest rate yet recorded here, and a lower rate than in any other European country except France and Belgium.

Though the proportion of women aged fifteen to forty-five to the rest of the population has increased in this country, the number of married women (*i.e.*, of marriages) has decreased; thus there is less chance of a large number of births. The illegitimate birth-rate has also fallen considerably—from 64 in 1860 to 41 in 1909 per 1,000 births, or from 2.2 to 1.0 per 1,000 living. But, even allowing for these factors, there has been an actual fall in the fertility rate, for, in proportion to the number of married women aged 15 to 45 years the birth-rate has dropped from 292 in 1870-72 per 1,000 to only 209 in 1909, making a decrease of 28.4 per cent. in the period 1890-92 to 1909.

The decrease may be attributed

partly to the later age at which women now usually marry, or still more to the deliberate restriction of the size of the family from social or economic reasons. It is almost impossible to ascertain whether there is any decrease of fertility in the physical sense.

The birth-rate is higher in rural districts and also in the poorer districts of large towns, and in mining centres. It is lowest in the well-to-do classes.

France has the lowest birth-rate in Europe 25 in 1881 and 20 in 1909, (with a death-rate of over 19 per 1,000); Germany, on the other hand, has a birth-rate of 32 (death-rate of 18); and Japan's birth-rate rose from 25 in 1881 to 34 in 1908. In the Dominions of the British Empire the birth-rate is not high; in the Australian Commonwealth it does not rise above 27 at highest.

It is obvious that the question of birth-rate is very important, as taken in connection with the death-rate it shows the net increase of population. Net increase in this country for 1909 was 11 per 1,000 living; for Germany (1908), 15; for France, 0.3; for Tasmania (highest reported), 20. The question of birth-rate affects many social problems.

Blacksmiths.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Blanket Clubs.—(See CLOTHING, COAL, AND BLANKET CLUBS.)

"Blind-alley" Occupations.—(See BOY LABOUR AND UNEMPLOYMENT.) This name is given to certain occupations of boys, which, not requiring skilled work, leave those engaged in them unfit for permanent work in a skilled trade.

Blind, Education and Training of the.—(See also ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) Free elementary education is provided for the Blind by the L.C.C. and by borough and district councils. The instruction is

given at special centres, at which the child must attend, by blind female teachers, who have been trained for this particular work, and are as fully qualified and certificated as teachers who can see. A blind child must be reported to the Education Committee or to the head teacher of the school in whose district the child resides at the age of five years. Part of their later tuition is conducted in a class of seeing children, in order that the blind child may early learn to conquer the self-consciousness and stiffness of action peculiar to the afflicted.

Up to the present time nothing has yet been done by the State to provide for the future of the blind child. With the cessation of its compulsory education comes the alleged end of all national responsibility in the matter. It is true that here and there a grant is made per head from the rates to those institutions which are schools, and that this grant continues till the age of the pupil is eighteen. In these cases the last two or three years are spent in industrial training, such as the manufacture of mats, brushes, baskets, etc. Of the schools in question, the most notable is, perhaps, the St. George's at Leatherhead. But it must be borne in mind that the schools thus instituted are only sufficient to deal with a mere tithe of the blind as they emerge from the educational centres. Every effort should, therefore, be made, and that at an early date, to gain admission into such a school, providing, of course, that the parents or guardians of a child desire for it this branch of industrial training.

Workshops which are not schools of education receive no subsidy from the State, and are supported entirely by voluntary contributions and by profits on the sale of goods. The most important of such workshops in London is in 258, Tottenham Court Road, W., and is known

as the Association for Promoting the General Welfare of the Blind. From this workshop alone, goods to the value of £250 are sold each week, and so keen are the management to conduct this trade on business lines, that, despite the abnormal expenditure incidental to blind labour, the annual loss on these sales does not much exceed £600. Yet the wage of the worker is higher than at almost every other institution. Here, too, applications should be sent in early, as delays are quite unavoidable, owing to the fact that no more than a proportion of the cases can be dealt with. The latest industry in this workshop is the manufacture of bedding, and the social worker, in whatever sphere he labours, cannot do better than pay a visit to the workshops, and see for himself how useful are the hands that have no eyes to guide them.

Music opens a door for the blind by which many seek to enter who do not succeed. Too often the choice is made because a profession is "nicer than a trade." And the pupil often finds that his profession turns out to be piano-tuning. First, let there be a clear and definite proof that the ear is sufficiently sensitive to the vibrations of sound. If this be the case, apply at once to the Management of the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music, Upper Norwood, S.E. The applicant will there be tested, and the result made known. A three years' pupilage is customary, and a fee of £20 per annum desired. In cases where such a sum is beyond the means of the parents or guardians, one or other of the charities for the blind, or the parochial authorities of the district in which the applicant lives, should be approached.

Piano-tuning is, perhaps, the chief technical instruction for males obtainable in this college. The pupil, when proficient, leaves the

school and starts in business somewhere for himself, working up a connection by patient industry and perseverance, which, on the whole, is, perhaps, more wholesome than an easier lot. Typewriting is also taught to great advantage, the operator being able to take down shorthand notes in Braille with astonishing rapidity. Several blind girls are filling posts of some importance in commercial houses, and giving entire satisfaction by the facile manner in which their work is achieved.

Stereotyping is an industry which has only recently come to the fore. The embossing of books was at one time wholly done by hand, and, where no more than one copy of a book is demanded, it still remains the cheaper process. But scores of standard works are now stereotyped—copy after copy being embossed from a single plate. This work is chiefly in the hands of the British and Foreign Blind Association, 206, Great Portland Street, W. Hand-embossing is done principally by blind women at their own homes, and this work is given out to them by the same Association. All writing implements and accessories should be procured here, the Secretary-General being at all times happy to supply information to any who may ask it.

Massage by the blind is by this time a well-known profession. It has even been said that they are specially adapted for the work. Certain it is that many are eminently successful in this branch of industry. The National Institution for Massage by the Blind, situated at 71, Bolsover Street, W., has been founded for the purpose of assisting those who wish to learn, and of finding employment for those who have taken their certificate. The best known studio is close to the institution, and is conducted by Dr. Fletcher Little, whose reputa-

tion as a massage specialist is too familiar to call for attention here. Suffice it to say that a certificate from Dr. Little goes farther than one from anyone else. Tuition usually occupies about four months. The fee to seeing pupils is ten guineas, but the blind are charged but five. Here, too, it is often necessary to apply for help in order to obtain the fee, and the same directions should be followed as are given above. The pupil has to pay a few minor expenses, such as the cost of books of study, etc., but this is not a serious expenditure. The one essential which must here be insisted on is the imperative need that the applicant be able to read Braille. Study without such a knowledge is practically impossible. Certificated masseurs and masseuses should at once set to work to introduce themselves to the doctors in the neighbourhood where they intend to reside.

Embossed books are often to be obtained from the free public libraries which are to be found in every district. But it will be readily understood that, in such libraries, the selection is generally very poor. The most important library for the blind is at 125, Queen's Road, Bayswater, W., and is known as the Incorporated National Lending Library for the Blind. Many thousands of works are here to be had by its members. The subscription is made to suit the means of the member—ranging from 5s. to £2 2s. per annum. Carriage of books is defrayed by the reader, save in very poor cases, when it is met from the Arnold Carriage Fund. Hampers or parcels of books are sent monthly, and the reader is able to make his selection from a catalogue of no small size.

The most popular and widely-read magazine-journal for the blind is called *Progress*, and is issued from the office of the

British and Foreign Blind Association, The subscription is 6s. a year, post free, and the literary matter which it contains is excellent.

For the past eighteen years many blind men and women have earned at least a partial living by the sale of tea, coffee and cocoa from house to house. The Blind Tea Agency, Ltd., of 5 Fen Court, Fenchurch Avenue, E.C., was established for this purpose, and its agents are to be found all over the British Isles. The tea is in sealed packets, and ready for sale, and no capital is required to start the agent in this business. Free samples are allowed for distribution, show-cards supplied, and a canvasser often sent down to work up a connection for the new agent.

Those who become blind after childhood, and who are, therefore, denied the special education given at school centres, should at once set to work to learn the art of reading and writing in Braille. All over London and its environs—and, in some instances also, in the larger provincial towns—blind teachers are sent into the homes of those who desire to learn. This work is in the hands of the Home Teaching Society for the Blind, 53, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W., to whom application should be sent. The teaching is quite free. Books are also lent without charge.

Note.—Most of the foregoing is confined apparently to the Metropolis. But the social worker is urged to communicate, not only with the nearest institution to his particular centre in the provinces, but also with any of the London Associations which seem to him to meet the needs of a special case, in order that no information may be withheld. It is always as well to get a good knowledge of a subject before committing one's self to action.

Blind, Pension Societies for the.—Several handbooks have been com-

piled on this subject, among which is *A Guide to Institutions, Charities, etc., for the Blind*, by Mansfield Turner, Esq., and William Harris, Esq., published by Messrs. Simpkin, Marshall & Co., 4, Stationers' Hall Court, London, 1884.

A perusal of this book will make it at once apparent that pensions can only be obtained by the destitute. In nearly every instance there is a condition as to income. The applicant must not be in receipt of more than from £10 to £20 a year, and must not be in receipt of parish relief. Fifty years of age is practically the lowest condition under this head, and it is always made clear, so large is the list of applicants, that some considerable time must necessarily elapse before any hope of a pension should be entertained. Perhaps the most generally known is the Gardner Trust for the Blind, 53, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W., the pension being £20 per annum. Grants of £10 per annum are sometimes made, under exceptional circumstances, until a pension can be granted, but it must be borne in mind that vacancies only occur at the decease of a pensioner.

Reference to the published list of such charities is the more strongly advised, since, in this way alone, special qualifications may be discovered to suit the case in point, which may facilitate the granting of the pension.

General Note.—The writer of the foregoing articles will hold himself ready at all times to give any information on the subject of the blind. Social workers are, therefore invited to communicate with Mr. Walter J. Mowbray, 41, Hazel-bourne Road, Balham, London, S.W.

Blindness, Causes and Prevention of.—1. *In Infancy and Early Childhood.* Causes under this head are very numerous. Neglect to cleanse the eyes at birth is often

responsible for inflammation. Exposure to a glare of light while suffering from measles plays no small part in the causes of blindness. But the whole position may be summed up in the one deplorable fact—that symptoms of affection of the eye in children, from whatever cause they spring, are too often permitted to take their course, in the forlorn hope that there will be an improvement in a day or two. Popular remedies are of no avail. Very warm water, to which is added a little boracic acid, is an excellent lotion. But advice should be sought at the earliest possible opportunity. In London, or in any other large city or town, where there is an ophthalmic hospital, this should be preferred, as the advice of a specialist is obviously of more value than that of the ordinary medical man.

2. *In Youth and Middle Age.* Causes in this class are not always easy to determine. Injury or shock will produce detachment of the retina, which no skill can cure, though partial restoration has, in rare instances, been achieved. Persons with defective vision are the most liable to blindness, and this should never be forgotten. With a little special care, much might in this way be saved. Fondness for reading should be kept under control by those whose sight is in any way impaired. Defective sight should be at once relieved by the obtaining of suitable glasses, but these should never be purchased from an optician without an order from a specialist. The glass that magnifies, and so appears to suit, is often the most dangerous to use. Again it is urged on all who have cause for concern as to their sight, or their eyes, that they seek early the advice of a specialist.

3. *In Old Age.* The commonest form of blindness under this head is cataract. This can often be removed with success, though

some time must elapse before the surgeon can do his work, owing to the slow development of the cataract itself. Other causes are often best endured, such as the gradual ebb of nature—against which we have no appeal—which may probably assert itself in this way first. But sound advice should always be obtained, in order that no reasonable hope may be undiscovered.

4. *Summary.* The greatest dangers are: Neglect and delay. Prevention is as much in the hands of the sufferer as of the specialist. The eye is too valuable to be kept waiting. Advice should, therefore, be sought without a day's delay.

Block Dwellings.—(See also ARTISANS' DWELLINGS, BUILDING BY-LAWS, HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL DWELLINGS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL and OVERCROWDING.) The block type of dwelling is a building of four, five, or more stories in height, containing tenements of one, two, three, or four rooms, more or less complete as separate dwellings packed together, and piled up on a limited area, with no gardens and no separate yard, but with common passages and staircases and an absence of all privacy outside the room door.

Each block is generally in charge of a caretaker or superintendent, and the common passages are sometimes lighted, cleaned, and controlled by him.

Associated block dwellings have the appurtenances such as wash-houses, sculleries and w.c.'s in common for several families.

Self-contained dwellings have their own sculleries, etc., to themselves.

Balcony dwellings enable one staircase to serve a large number of dwellings by means of galleries along the front of each storey as an approach to each tenement, but the

objection to the balcony is that it obstructs direct sunshine.

The block type of dwellings owes its origin to the obstacles in the way of outward or horizontal expansion of cities imposed by fortifications in the old days, and in recent times by the restricted and costly supply of land which has tended to stereotype this method of building in the large continental cities, and on the cleared slum areas of central London, Glasgow, Liverpool, and other large towns.

The cost of building varies from £70 to £140 per room, and averages just under £100. This necessitates rents varying from 2s. to 4s. per room. A week's wages are generally required to pay a month's rent for block dwellings in London, but in Scotland a day's wages will pay the week's rent, because the Scotchman accepts a smaller number of rooms for his dwelling.

English municipalities have built about 14,000 block dwellings with 30,000 rooms, but the tendency is against further building, as improved means of transit enables the available sites for dwellings to be scattered over a wider area.

The ten big housing companies have provided block dwellings for 125,000 persons in London, in 55,738 rooms, on an area of about 150 acres in buildings, costing £4,750,000, rented at £367,400.

Blue Books. — (See PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS.)

Board of Agriculture. — The Board of Agriculture, established in 1889, consists technically of certain Cabinet Ministers and other appointed persons, but in practice is managed by the President and the Under-Secretary, with the Permanent Secretary and his assistants.

The following are the main divisions:—Animals, Intelligence, Fisheries, Land, Statistics, and General. The Animals' division controls the administration of the

diseases of Animal Acts, 1894 to 1910 (see CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF ANIMALS ACT, 1894); Dogs Act, 1906, and orders made thereunder, including the prevention of the spread of rabies, anthrax, swine fever, and other contagious diseases, the regulating of the importation of dogs, ruminating and canine animals, and of the exportation of horses.

The Intelligence division deals with insect and fungus pests; supervises the administration of the Sale of Food and Drugs Act, and Fertilisers and Feeding Stuffs Acts; advises on higher agricultural education; and publishes leaflets, as well as the journal of the Board. The leaflets deal with twelve different groups of subjects: (1) Acts of Parliament; (2) farm animals and dairying; (3) insect pests of animals; (4) poultry and bees; (5) fruit trees and garden crops; (6) manures and feeding stuffs; (7) forest trees; (8) wild animals and birds; (9) insect pests of crops; (10) insect and other pests on fruit trees; (11) fungi injurious to crops; (12) fungi injurious to fruit trees.

The Fisheries Division deals with the Sea Fisheries Regulation Acts; Salmon and Freshwater Fisheries Acts; Cran Measures Act, 1908; and generally the statutory regulation of fisheries within English jurisdiction.

The Statistical Tithe and Establishment Division collects and reports upon the annual agricultural returns of acreage, crops, fisheries, live stock, prices, and various statistics; deals with the enfranchisement of copyholds, regulation and enclosure of commons, land, drainage schemes, and redemption of tithe rent charges.

The Land Division deals with the Allotments (*q.v.*) and Small Holdings (*q.v.*) Acts; sales of glebe land and college estates; assists

improvement of land by private owners ; recommends grants under the Light Railways Act, 1896 ; and deals with the Agricultural Holdings Acts.

Its most important work at present, however, is the administration of the Small Holdings and Allotments Act, 1908, which is carried out mainly through commissioners and their staff, who are charged by statute with the duty of finding out where there is a demand for land for allotments and small holdings, and taking steps, mainly through county council administration, to supply the reasonable and legitimate needs of applicants.

The report of the Board up to the 31st December, 1909, shows the following results of the first two years' work :—

Acres Purchased	34,234
Cost	£1,107,215
Acres Leased	26,665
Rent	£33,611
Acres Actually Let ..	36,845
Number of Small Holders	2,793
Applicants Privately Provided	1,648
Acreage so Acquired ..	20,000

In addition, 2,674 acres were let to seventeen Co-operative Small Holdings Associations, thus making the total of 63,000 acres, including some 6,600 small holders. A more recent return shows that 981 schemes, comprising 75,350 acres, have been sanctioned. Of those last-named areas, 35,910 acres were purchased by voluntary sale, and 35,658 leased, whilst the amount purchased and leased by compulsion, respectively, were 7,195 and 4,587 acres. Those who applied for tenancy under the Act numbered 21,386, and only 348 had applied for purchase. Only 25 per cent. of the applicants throughout the country were agricultural labourers.

The supervision of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, and the control of the Ordnance Survey of the United Kingdom are entrusted to the Board. The offices are at 4 and 8, Whitehall Place.

Board of Education.—An Act was passed in 1899 to establish one central authority "charged with the superintendence of matters relating to education in England and Wales." The Board of Education consists of a President and certain high officers of State, who never meet as a body. The President is responsible to Parliament, and has the assistance of a Parliamentary secretary. The chief portion of the Board's work relates to the elementary schools (*q.v.*) of the country, though the secondary schools (*q.v.*) branch is growing steadily. Each has its own staff of inspectors. There is also the technological branch, which includes the control and inspection of technical institutes (*q.v.*), evening schools (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS), and schools of art (*q.v.*). The universities' branch is connected with all matters relating to the training of teachers, including the inspection of training colleges (see TEACHERS, TRAINING OF). Useful work has been done by the department of special inquiries and reports in issuing a special series of reports covering a wide range of subjects of interest to educationalists. In this connection may be mentioned the library of the Board, which is open to the public for purposes of reference. By the Board of Education Act, 1899, a Consultative Committee was formed primarily to prepare a register of teachers, but it has done more useful work in advising the Board upon other matters. Educational matters in Wales are assigned to a separate department of the Board of Education.

Board of Trade. — Strictly

speaking, the Board of Trade is a committee of the Privy Council, but in practice the committee never meets, and the department is controlled by the President, whose status was raised in 1909, so that the Board is now in the first rank of departments of State. The first great development of the work of the Board was due to the making of railways. The Board has the oversight of everything in connection with them, including the conditions of labour of the servants of the companies. It has similar extensive powers in regard to canals, and by the general use of electricity its duties have received another considerable addition. The Board of Trade is also the department to which appeal is made in reference to the running of cheap trains (*q.v.*) for workmen. The Marine Department of the Board has a number of duties in regard to traffic by sea, including the inspection of ships, their equipment and machinery, the qualifications of the officers, the health of the crews, and the safety of the passengers. The Harbour Department is, as it were, the connecting link between the railways and the sea, and has the charge of the shores, the management of harbours, and the control over the lighthouses. The Finance Department administers and deals with the pensions, savings bank and money orders for merchant seamen, the relief of distressed seamen, and the wages and effects of deceased seamen. The Board of Trade has also separate and important departments to deal with bankruptcy and companies, and among other matters for which it is the responsible government department are patents, trade-marks, and copyright. The oldest branch of the Board of Trade is the statistical, whose duties have been considerably extended in the last forty

years by publication of statistics with regard to wages, hours of labour, conditions of the working classes, trade unions (*q.v.*) and strikes and lock-outs. The head of the Commercial and Statistical Department and the President have done valuable work in settling disputes between employers and workmen, but that is not a statutory duty, and can only be undertaken at the request of the contending parties. A recent development of the Board's activities is the control of labour exchanges (see UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Board Schools.—(See ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.)

Boarding Out (under the Poor Law).—(See also CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.) In the early days of the last century, children under the Poor Law who were not old enough to work were allowed to remain in the general mixed workhouse, and, unfortunately, in spite of the recommendations of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) and of all right-minded people, some thousands of children, especially in rural districts, even now still remain in the workhouse. Up to 1870 the only alternative was the large barrack school, usually built to serve a number of unions, but since that time guardians have generally preferred to place the children either in village communities (groups of cottage homes) in scattered homes, or in training ships or certified homes, or "to board them out" in ordinary working class families, either within or without the area of the union.

Boarding out was approved by both Reports of the Poor Law Commission of 1909. To quote the Minority Report: "Boarding out . . . when properly supervised, and with an active and wise Boarding-out Committee, is . . . the ideal system both for boys and girls, but especially for girls."

It has these advantages :—

1. The children are brought up in the conditions and surroundings to which they belong, and in which they will ultimately have to live.

2. They can share in the natural family life of their foster-parents and have a "home," instead of a "Home" to which to return later on when ill or out of work.

3. The cost is very much less than that of any other system except the Scattered Home system.

4. It is easier to study the individuality of the children, to fit them into future work, and to continue supervision after school days are over.

5. It is healthier both physically and morally for children to live thus in the country in ordinary houses than to be crowded together in large schools or in communities.

6. The children learn the value of money and the ways of respectable working people; and for girls there is a better chance of learning ordinary domestic work, cookery, and the care of a house and of younger children, which fits them both for service and for married life.

The system is least successful with older boys and with those children who need special discipline and training.

All children, however, are not eligible for boarding out, and only those who are orphans, or deserted, or who have been "adopted" by the guardians under the Act of 1899, can be thus provided for. But those children are included both of whose parents are dead, or one dead and the other under sentence of penal servitude, in an asylum, or bedridden in the workhouse, or when both are in a like condition; in fact, all those children who are virtually orphans. A child who is suffering from serious mental or physical defect cannot suitably be boarded out, and there is a strict rule that the religion of the foster-

parents is to be the same as that of the child.

Those boarded out without the Union *i.e.*, at a distance beyond the area over which the guardians have control, are placed by the guardians under the supervision of a local committee, approved both by the guardians and the Local Government Board, consisting of three or more persons, of whom one at least must be a woman. In practice the committees are chiefly composed of ladies. This committee makes arrangements with suitable foster-parents to take charge of the children. The foster-parents are obliged to sign an agreement to bring up the children as their own, to provide them with proper food, lodging, etc., to endeavour to train them in habits of truthfulness, obedience, personal cleanliness, and industry, as well as in suitable work, to see that they attend church or chapel and school, to clothe them properly, and to notify any illness to the committee.

A sum not exceeding 5s. a week (usually 4s.) is given for board and lodging, and 10s. a quarter for clothes, a sufficient outfit being provided at the beginning by the guardians.

Each child is visited in its foster-home at least once in six weeks by a member of the committee, and the visitor reports in writing to the committee, and the committee to the guardians, once a quarter, and a half-yearly report is made to the Local Government Board on each child. The secretary or a second member of the committee also visits each home once in three months, and the boarding-out committees must meet at least once a quarter to receive the members' reports.

At these meetings various difficulties are discussed, for though the children have each a special member as visitor, the whole committee is responsible for their welfare, and

has to decide as to removal, apprenticeship, the choice of fresh homes, etc. Needless to say, members take the keenest interest in the progress and welfare of their children. They continue to befriend them after work has been found and they are "out in the world." Girls usually go to service, boys to various trades or to work on farms or in gardens, or into the Army or Navy.

No child can be boarded out under two years of age, or over ten, except in the case of an elder brother or sister of one already boarded out, and not more than two can be placed in one home except in the case of brothers and sisters. The foster-parents must be respectable people, not in receipt of Poor Law relief, and must not have been convicted of any serious offence. And no child can be placed in a public-house. The homes have to be within three miles of the residence of a member of the committee, and not more than two miles from a suitable school, where the master or mistress is willing to send in quarterly reports as to the progress of the child.

Arrangements are made for the children to be seen regularly by some medical practitioner, and, in addition, the Government lady boarding-out inspectors come round periodically to inspect all children boarded out, and to meet the committees, to whom they are most helpful in giving encouragement and expert advice.

Where the work of the committee is conscientiously done there is little fear of the system being abused. A child neglected or ill-treated is promptly moved from the undesirable home. Inspection has to be thorough; the child should sometimes be seen half-undressed, and bedroom and bedding and clothing thoroughly inspected.

Good foster-parents welcome such inspection if the visitor is tactful

and friendly. The child should also be seen away from the home from time to time.

Children boarded out *within* the Union (*i.e.*, in the area over which the local guardians have jurisdiction) have not hitherto been so well looked after as those *without* the Union, but by the Local Government Board Order of 1909, guardians must appoint a committee of not less than three persons to supervise these children, either from their own members, or of residents not being guardians, one-third of whom must be women. It is much to be desired that there should always be an outside committee, on which there should be an adequate number of women, since men guardians cannot suitably inspect these homes, especially in the case of girls. They may, however, appoint a woman visitor to visit the children and to pay the foster-parents, if these duties are not undertaken by members of the committee. The services of the relieving officer (*q.v.*) are no longer to be utilised for this purpose.

But there are still the disadvantages in the boarding out within the Union that the children are thus often still connected with the Poor Law through the guardians, and that for those children who have undesirable relatives there is the danger of visits by such persons to unsettle them in their new homes.

The same classes of children are eligible for boarding out both within and without the Union, and the same rules now apply as to selection of homes and foster-parents, etc., and all are under the inspection of the Local Government Board lady inspectors.

All information and useful literature can be obtained from the State Children's Association (*q.v.*), 53, Victoria Street, S.W., or from the Local Government Board Office, Whitehall, S.W. There is a great

need for more boarding-out committees in different parts of the country, and there could scarcely be a more useful work for a child-loving woman to undertake.

Boilermakers.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Bookbinding.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Bookmaking.—(See also BETTING.) Professional betting is carried on by bookmakers everywhere and anywhere, race-courses being generally the betting rings completely free from interruptions by the law; sports grounds sometimes, although under certain circumstances subject to the same regulations as Street Betting (*q.v.*); while betting houses (or places) have operations in them restricted specifically as to *credit* betting by the betting laws (*q.v.*), more particularly by the Gaming Acts and the Betting House Act of 1853. The bookmakers carrying on a credit business in betting houses or offices call themselves commission agents or turf accountants, but the terms are merely a blind, as to all intents and purposes they are bookmakers. One of these men in April, 1908, said at the Southport police-court that £100,000 passed through his hands in one season. It is probable that 95 per cent. of the bets made in the United Kingdom are made with or through the agency of bookmakers, so that professional betting is responsible for nearly the whole volume of this form of gambling. The great bulk of it was confined some few years ago to bets made upon horse races, but now an appreciable portion of the whole is transacted upon football matches, and that great game has consequently become more of a commercial speculation than an athletic sport. The calling is spreading to women, and not a few of them have been arrested for street bookmaking. At Sandown Park, in the racing

season of 1910, the first "lady" bookmaker appeared in the betting ring, and is said to have been largely patronised. Sir Robert Giffen, the eminent statistician, estimated that no less a sum than five millions sterling was annually risked by the wage-earning classes to the bookmakers. The late Sir Fitzjames Stephen, the author of the *Digest of the Criminal Law*, stated in a published opinion that he considered the existence of the bookmaker was an insult to the law. The number of them at the commencement of the nineteenth century may have been about twenty, and at the end of it approximately 25,000. There are perhaps at the present time 30,000 individuals getting their living, or part of it, by bookmaking, owing to the neglect of Parliament to deal efficiently with the subject.

Boot Manufacture.—(See BOYS' WORKSHOPS AND TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Borough Councillors, Duties of.—To be a borough councillor is to be one of the governors of the country, to take part in the administration of the laws, and especially those affecting the health and comfort of the poor. To take London as an example, since and by the London Government Act, 1899, a borough council is not merely the rate making and rate collecting body, but it is the sanitary authority of the large and populous area it comprehends, which may include a quarter of a million of people. It can also establish and support public baths and washhouses, public libraries, and burial grounds. It appoints analysts to protect people from adulterated or sophisticated food and drugs, and it has to enforce bye-laws as to dairies, as well as slaughter-houses and offensive business. As it will be evident that nearly all the duties (see BOROUGH COUNCILS) affect

health and vitality directly or indirectly, it will be plain that all who desire the well-being of the people, and especially of the poor, should not be uninterested in borough council matters and elections, nor reluctant to become councillors if their time permits. Nor should they accept the idea that a seat is to be sought mainly with the hope of reducing the rates, which often can only be accomplished by a sacrifice of efficiency and by neglecting matters of literally vital importance as regards public health. Any man or woman who is a parochial elector, or has lived for the past twelve months in the borough, is eligible for election. Elections are triennial, except when a death or other cause makes a bye-election necessary in one of the wards into which a borough is divided. Council meetings are held fortnightly, with a recess in the summer, and the omission of one or more meetings at Christmas and Easter. The hour of meeting varies in different boroughs, to meet the convenience of the majority of members. There are usually three large committees: Public Health, Works, and General Purposes, on one of which each member has to serve. They meet fortnightly, and each has several sub-committees, on which members serve if they please. The demand upon the time of a borough councillor is usually much less than on that of a guardian of the poor. There is also a certain number of aldermen, elected by the council, who retain their seats for six years. The election of mayor and the reconstitution of committees occurs annually in November. There may or may not be a deputy-mayor. In only two London boroughs (with the exception of the City) is any allowance of money made to the mayor towards the expenses or the

expenditure of his year of office. To use the words of a mayor of one of the boroughs: "As years pass on, more and more work will be put upon the bodies to which local government is entrusted, more and more will be required of them, and, above all, more and more it will be felt that this honour and this burden should only be entrusted to men as borough councillors, whatever their political opinions, who are known to be men of moral worth and self-sacrificing in the interests of the common weal."

Borough Councils (out of London).

—(See also METROPOLITAN BOROUGH COUNCILS.) The municipal corporation of a borough (or city) is the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses (or citizens), acting by a council, the latter consisting of a mayor, aldermen, and councillors. The mayor is elected annually from within or without the council. In certain cases (*e.g.*, Liverpool) he has the title of "Lord Mayor." In all cases he is a justice of the peace for his year of office, and usually for the following year as well. The aldermen are elected from within or without the council, and serve for six years. The councillors are directly elected for three years. The principal (non-judicial) officers of a borough council are the town clerk, borough treasurer, medical officer of health (*q.v.*), surveyor, and inspector of nuisances. As administrative areas, boroughs are of two classes, county boroughs and non-county boroughs. Speaking generally, the first may be described as administrative counties of themselves, the councils performing many functions analogous to those of county councils (*q.v.*), and the second, while remaining separate municipal entities, form part of, and contribute more or less to, the expenses of the county. There were (last return) 73 county and 254 non-county

boroughs in England and Wales. The departments of administration with which borough councils are concerned are partly municipal, partly sanitary, partly educational; but even this, although covering a fairly wide field, is not exhaustive. The powers and duties of the councils are not equally extensive in all cases, but the following are some of the principal matters with which they deal, or may deal, according to circumstances: Elementary education (excluding boroughs with less than 10,000 inhabitants); higher education (see EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES) (subject to the proviso that a non-county borough council may not raise by rates in one year for this purpose more than a penny in the pound); roads, streets, bridges, and tramways; police; lunatic asylums (*q.v.*); libraries and museums (*q.v.*), art galleries, and schools of science and art (*q.v.*); open spaces; baths and washhouses (*q.v.*); sewerage, drainage (*q.v.*), and cleansing; public lighting and the supply of gas, water, and electricity; infectious hospitals (see ISOLATION HOSPITALS), markets; burial grounds and crematoria; housing and town planning (*q.v.*); diseases of animals (see ANIMALS' DISEASES); milk premises; slaughterhouses; reformatories and industrial schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS) and places of detention for juvenile offender; (*q.v.*); weights and measures; fire-engines; coroners (see DEAD, CARE OF THE); analysts; midwives (*q.v.*); valuation of property for purposes of the borough rate, etc. (see VALUATION). Borough councils have power to promote or oppose Bills in Parliament. They levy the borough rates either directly or (more usually) through the overseers (*q.v.*). They also levy (directly) the general

district rates, and some other rates. The borough rates replenish the "borough fund," and the general district rates the "district fund." The former may be described generally as the municipal, and the latter generally as the sanitary, fund; but expenditure which, in one borough would be a borough fund charge, may be, in another borough, a district fund charge, and *vice versa*. The councils provide town halls and various other buildings for public purposes. Those of the larger boroughs appoint old-age pension committees (see PENSIONS IN OLD AGE) and distress committees (see UNEMPLOYMENT). The financial transactions of borough councils have grown to enormous proportions. Their annual expenditure (last return) amounted to nearly £50,000,000; and their outstanding loan debt to nearly £239,000,000. Of these amounts, however, nearly £18,000,000 is to be attributed to annual expenditure on tramway, light railway, water, gas, and electricity undertakings, and £122,500,000 to loan debt on account of these. The annual charges of loans (repayments and interest) amounted to over £14,300,000, of which £6,800,000 represented charges for the service of the debt on tramway, light railway, water, gas, and electricity undertakings. The principal sources of revenue of borough councils (last return) were: Rates, £19,000,000; government grants, £6,200,000; rents, etc., of property, £1,550,000; tramway, light railway, water, gas, and electricity undertakings, £19,000,000.

Borstal Association.—This Association was formed by Sir Evelyn Ruggles Brise, as Chairman of the Prison Commission, and has for some years received, on his release, every boy who has been under the Borstal treatment. The Prevention of Crime Act (1908)

recognises the integral importance of this part of the Borstal System (*q.v.*) by authorising expenditure by the State for the purpose of after-care; and the annual reports of the Prison Commissioners have, year by year, borne generous witness to the work done by the Association. The Act of 1908 has, moreover, both helped the boys, and strengthened the hands of the Association, by providing that every boy who has been at a Borstal institution shall, on his release, remain for a period varying according to his conduct, under the control of those who undertake his after-care. The licence under which he is released provides in effect that during the unexpired portion of his sentence, and for six months longer, he must satisfy the Association that he is avoiding bad company and living a sober and industrious life. If he fails to do so, he may be arrested and taken back to Borstal. This control enables the Association to help its charges to resist tendencies to slackness on their own part, or the bad influence of others, and to keep them steady until they are accustomed to honest ways and good company.

Some weeks before a boy is due for release his relations and former employers are visited; the boy is then seen, and his hopes and prospects are fully discussed. Arrangements are then made in view of his release. When he comes out, clothes, work, and, if necessary, a home are found for him. He is visited frequently and encouraged to keep in close touch with the visitor who has him specially in his care. It is not possible, without a breach of confidence, to publish any of the numerous letters of thanks and appreciation which the Association and the officers of the institutions receive from boys. The boys realise that "they make a man of you at Borstal," and they write

back to their friends that "if you want to go straight, they look after you all right when you come out."

Many of them get their first real chance of making a good job of their life on leaving Borstal. Others who have had chances have learnt at Borstal how to use them, and are now backed by improved physique and the compelling force of the licence under which they are conditionally released. Though the Association cannot claim to fit every boy into the work for which he is best suited, it does at least afford to every boy a chance, and if the first fails, more than one chance of an honest life.

For all information as to details and results, application should be made to the Borstal Association, 15, Buckingham Street, Strand, which should receive the cordial support of all social workers.

Borstal System. — This is an attempt by the State to rescue from a life of crime boys and girls who have offended against the law during the critical period between their sixteenth and twenty-first years. That period marks the time when parental control has weakened, when a boy's wages no longer satisfy and a man's wages cannot be claimed, when the strong boy feels restless and the weak boy hopeless; it is not to be wondered at that most confirmed criminals date their downfall from acts of outlawry during those years.

Many boys and girls must be imprisoned during those years of growth and development, for they cannot be left to prey on Society; but the time of their imprisonment may be used to develop their latent powers, to correct their undisciplined habits, and to build them up morally and physically, so that on their release they will welcome friendly oversight and opportunities for an honest life. These are the aims of the Borstal System and

of the Borstal Association (*q.v.*) as part of it.

The Borstal System, therefore, combines strict discipline with moral and religious training, and generous rewards for growth in self-control and progress in handicrafts, physical exercises and education.

The System has grown out of experiments conducted by the Prison Commissioners (the governing body of all English prisons), since 1902, at Borstal Prison, on the hills above Rochester, at Lincoln, and elsewhere.

Until 1909, experiments were carried on as a matter of internal arrangement under the ordinary prison regulations, modified as far as might be to meet the altered circumstances.

In spite of the difficulties presented by the problem, the results were so satisfactory, that, in 1908, the Borstal System was adopted as part of the penal system of the country by the passing of the Prevention of Crime Act of that year. By that Act, Borstal institutions were, as from August 1st, 1909, established and defined as "places in which young offenders, whilst detained, may be given such industrial training and other instruction, and be subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as may conduce to their reformation and the prevention of crime," and regulations for the management of Borstal institutions may be substituted for ordinary prison rules by the Home Secretary. To Borstal institutions boys and girls may be sent by the higher courts for not less than one nor more than three years, if they are between sixteen and twenty-one years of age, and if by reason of their criminal habits or tendencies or associations with persons of bad character, such reformatory treatment appears expedient, and if the court is satisfied that

their history, health, and mental condition are such that they are likely to profit by the treatment. Inquiries on these points are made by the Prison Authorities before the trial, and the results are submitted to the court, so that the System may not be overburdened by unsuitable cases, and by having to attempt the impossible feat of re-making defectives or degenerates whose minds and bodies are hopelessly affected by vice or disease.

The net, however, is not close-meshed, and if there appears to be any chance that a boy will benefit, he is recommended for treatment under the system.

Bottle-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Box-making. — (See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION, TRADE BOARDS and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Boy Labour.—(See also TRADES FOR BOYS.) 1. *The Problem Defined.* The problem of boy labour may be well defined in words of the Majority of the Poor Law Commission: "The almost universal experience is that, in large towns, boys, owing to carelessness or selfishness on the part of the parents, or their own want of knowledge and forethought . . . plunge haphazard immediately on leaving school, into occupations in which there is no future; where they earn wages sufficiently high to make them independent of parental control and disinclined for the lower wages of apprenticeship; and whence, if they remain on, they are extruded when they grow to manhood. . . . All our investigations go to show that there is a regular drift from such boys' occupations into the low-skilled labour market."

More than 200,000 boys leave the elementary schools (*q.v.*) in England and Wales each year. They immediately enter the working world, for the most part without

plan or guidance. Seventy or eighty per cent. of them find their way into unskilled occupations. The problem is not confined to those forms of purely juvenile work—such as that of messenger—which have been aptly called “Blind-alley” occupations, though the crux of the problem is found in such work. The danger invades the skilled trades, owing to subtle changes in industrial conditions to be noted later. As the problem invades all forms of boy work, so also it touches all classes of working boys. It is not the boy of destitute or thriftless parents—the street-trader or the loafer—who suffers only, or who (from this cause) suffers most. It is the problem of the average working boy, coming from a good home, the son of careful and thrifty parents. It is not primarily a problem of poverty; but a problem of changed and changing economic conditions.

For the ready supply of boy labour there is a constant demand. Boys are increasingly employed in every sort of industry. In factories and workshops, in offices and warehouses, in the streets, in shops, restaurants and hotels, as ministers to the business of the world and to its pleasure, boys find their more or less temporary employment. The ease with which boy labour is obtainable stimulates the demand, and opens new avenues for its exercise. Readily obtained, it is heedlessly used.

The best qualities of the average boy, as well as his natural limitations, make him the readier victim to the evils of his work. His strength, agility, resistance to fatigue, and cheerful temper make him peculiarly useful in the miscellaneous business of the world; while forethought and a wary eye to the future of his work is not yet his. He lives for the day, and takes with a “frolic welcome” what it brings forth.

What it brings forth for him is often work cruelly hard, weary, and long continued. “The occupations themselves,” to quote again the Poor Law Commission’s Majority Report, “are in most cases destructive to healthy development, owing to long hours, long periods of standing, walking, or mere waiting, and, morally, are wholly demoralising.”

2. *The Problem Exemplified.*

This general statement of the problem will be made clearer by the consideration of some typical instances. Boy labour is not easy to classify; but some sort of rough classification, sufficient for the present purpose, may be made by viewing it under three headings, which, however, overlap. (i) “Blind-alley” boy work, which of necessity ends with boyhood; (ii) work of doubtful and variable prospect; (iii) the work of boys in skilled trades, and in other occupations, which in their nature should be progressive and probationary, but are not always so. Take instances under these three heads: (i) “Blind-alley” occupations.

A. The largest and most typical occupation under this head is the work of messengers of various sorts.

(a) *Postal Telegraph Messengers.* About 16,000 boys are employed by the Post Office in the United Kingdom as telegraph messengers. Of these, about 60 per cent. are dismissed the service on reaching the age of sixteen. Half the vacancies for postmen are reserved for ex-soldiers and ex-navy men. One natural avenue of future employment for telegraph messengers is, therefore, narrowed, until barely a moiety of the messengers can enter it. In addition, a certain number of vacancies within the postal service—as sorters and telegraphists—are open by competitive examination to boy messengers. As, however, the examination standard is fairly high, and the messengers are

in some cases brought into competition with boys who have had better educational opportunities, the chances of obtaining these appointments by the messengers are small. The difficulty of the boys who are dismissed at sixteen is great. It is natural that such boys and their parents should entertain to the last the hope that they will be retained. Exhaustive evidence of the difficulty that the messengers experience in finding promising work on dismissal is contained in the Report on Boy-labour, presented by Mr. Cyril Jackson to the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws (Cd. 4632, 1909). Many other instances from London, Liverpool, and Manchester have come under the notice of the present writer. The telegraph messenger is, for the most part, the son of good parents, has passed a good school standard, is a smart and able lad, and his industrial heredity and personal character suggest that, but for the handicap of his early work, he would have won for himself a good position in industry. The first Report of the Standing Committee on Boy Labour in the Post Office (Cd. 5504, 1911) is hopeful in its frank admission of the evil. The Committee propose by reducing the number of Boy Messengers employed, by increasing the opportunities of permanent employment in the Post Office, and by a more uniform system of "warning" messengers who cannot be retained, to minimise the economic dangers of their work.

(b) *Messengers employed by private Telegraph Companies, Press Agencies, and Messenger Companies.* Messengers employed by such companies are without even the prospects of the postal telegraph messenger. Hundreds of boys are so employed in London, many in Liverpool, and some in Manchester.

They are often paid exceptionally good wages, but they are hardly ever promoted to any permanent position. Normally, their term of messenger service ends at seventeen, but they are not necessarily dismissed at that age. There are young fellows in London of nineteen and twenty who are still messengers, and whose efforts to obtain progressive work are, on account only of their age, unavailing. The London District Messenger Company employs from 700 to 900 boys—the number varying according to the time of the year. They are equally without training or continuous prospect, their future depending precariously upon the chance of their meeting with employers in the course of their varied duties, which range from taking messages to domestic service. One of the illustrated papers recently exhibited a District Messenger engaged with apparent success in nursing and amusing a baby!

B. The messenger, socially and economically, stands at the top of the scale of "Blind-alley" occupations. At the bottom is the *street trader*. He is, in fact, rather "out of the picture" in a survey of the boy-labour market. He is hardly employed: he is his own employer. He is to be distinguished from the boy of school-age who is employed by newsvendors for the delivery of morning and evening papers. (See CHILD LABOUR.) Street-trading boys are either, according to the evidence of the Chief Constable of Manchester (Mr. Robert Peacock) driven forth by worthless parents to minister to their idleness or, at a later age, maintain themselves in common lodging houses (*q.v.*). They soon become unable and unwilling to engage in regular work, lose self-respect, and (in the words of Mr. C. E. B. Russell, of Manchester) "as they grow older they sink to a lower level, both morally and

economically." (For the regulation of Street-Trading by Children, see CHILD LABOUR.)

C. Between the messenger at the top of the scale of "Blind-alley" work and the street-seller at the bottom is an enormous number of boy-workers, whose occupations are too fugitive for classification. They minister to amusement as golf caddies (*q.v.*), or label bottles, or make packages of tea, and, in the favourite phrase of the advertisements, "make themselves generally useful"; but they are all alike bound to the same bourne of future unemployability.

(ii) *Work of Doubtful Prospect.* Many occupations engaged in by boys are of doubtful prospect. They may be continuous or not, according to circumstances in particular cases. Shop errand-boys are an instance of this. In some cases in the providing trades, in which they are most largely employed, they are retained to manhood, and their boy-work is probationary to the work of shop assistant. But the evidence of a large Manchester grocer, that many of his branch managers, and almost all his assistants, had been promoted from boys, is very exceptional. The work is hard, and the hours long. The Shop Hours Acts (*q.v.*), limiting the period of employment under eighteen, "in or about a shop," to 74 a week, including meal-times, is sometimes ignored and often evaded. Shop errand-boys are generally "roving boys," who try occupation after occupation, and remain in none. Much the same is to be said of van boys, though they sometimes become drivers or carters in later life. "Pages" or "door-boys" are now very largely employed in shops of the smarter sort, and in restaurants. They are sometimes offered vague prospects, but the promise is seldom fulfilled. They stand idle for hours at a stretch, to the impairment of their health, and in

utter weariness of body and mind. In the London restaurants they often work until very late at night. Easily obtained, they are dismissed at a moment's notice on the flimsiest of pretexts; and their entire lack of useful experience renders an entrance upon skilled work difficult. Pages in hotels and clubs, on the other hand, often have fair prospects.

Under the classification of shop-work comes also the employment of newsboys at railway bookstalls. One of the firms controlling the stalls throughout the country makes a practice of promoting boys when vacancies occur, but the number of vacancies is about a tenth of the number of boys; and to the majority of them this work also is a "blind alley."

Some kinds of office work must also be pronounced "of doubtful prospect." Probably for a boy fitted for the work, who finds employment with a good firm, office work offers as good a prospect as any other work open to boys, and better than most. But many boys are employed in small city offices to whom no prospect is offered and no training given. They mind the office in the absence of their master, have far more leisure time than is good for them, and are cast off in favour of younger boys when their age suggests a demand for increased wages.

(iii) *The Problem in the Skilled Trades.* Changing industrial conditions are responsible for the appearance of the problem of boy labour in the skilled trades. Apprenticeship in the true sense is, in many trades dead, and in others, dying. Minute specialisation in the interests of rapid production makes thorough training impossible. A boy entering a factory or workshop is confined to a single department, and sometimes to a single process in that department. In this one

process, practice gives him a wonderful adroitness, eminently serviceable to his employer, but obviously narrowing the limits of his future work. Thrown out of work, he remains unemployed until he can find a market for his limited skill. Further, in the manufacturing trades, numbers of boys are employed in odd jobs, which are not more progressive than "blind-alley" work outside the factory: they are boy labourers, and learn nothing. The Royal Commission on the Poor Laws mentions, among these unprogressive employments within the factory, the work of loom boys, doffers, shifters in cotton and woollen trades, rivet boys in shipbuilding, drawers off in saw mills, packers and in soap works.

The constant advance of mechanical invention, again, ministers to the same evil. Boys become machine-minders; or, having started to learn some manual work, which is afterwards done by machinery, become unemployed.

3. *Proposed Solutions of the Problem.* Voluntary effort has already done something towards a solution of the problem. The Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*) in London, with its affiliated committees in London and the provinces, and the National Institution of Apprenticeship (*q.v.*), try to direct the steps of the schoolboys who come under their influence into the direction of skilled work. They see to the proper apprenticing of boys whose parents wish them to be bound to trades. The After-care Committees in connection with many of the elementary schools (*q.v.*) also do a valuable work in the same direction. But these, and the like, voluntary efforts are only able at best to do a restricted and tentative work. The ultimate hope is to be found in the organisation of boy work from the moment of leaving

school on a national and authoritative basis. A beginning was made under the Labour Exchanges Act, 1909. Special rules were issued with regard to the registration of juvenile applicants and in them it was recognised that the Board of Education (*q.v.*) and the local education authorities (*q.v.*) are interested in the subject equally with the Board of Trade (*q.v.*). There were doubts, however, as to the powers of the education authorities, with the result that the Education (Choice of Employment) Act was passed at the end of the session of 1910 to enable certain local education authorities to give boys and girls under seventeen, information, advice, and assistance with respect to the choice of employment. It is clear that the machinery is not yet quite complete and that something further is needed to secure the continuance of their education on the lines of the recommendations of the Poor Law Commissioners.

The Majority of the Poor Law Commission recommended: 1. Raising of the school age (*q.v.*) to fifteen. Exemption below that age granted only to boys entering skilled employments. 2. School supervision till sixteen, with replacement in school if not properly employed. 3. Improved facilities for technical education (*q.v.*).

The Minority of the Poor Law Commission recommended: 1. The statutory prohibition of the employment of any boy in any occupation below the age of fifteen. 2. Limitation of the employment of any youth under eighteen to 30 hours a week. 3. The compulsory attendance of boys between fifteen and eighteen at classes in technical education (*q.v.*) and physical training (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS).

Boy Scouts.—(See BOYS' BRIGADES AND BOY SCOUTS.)

Boys' Aid.—(See CHURCH ARMY.)

Boys' Brigades and Boy Scouts.—Chief among these are the *Church Lads' Brigade*, *Roman Catholic Boys' Brigade*, *Boys' Brigade*, and *Boy Scouts*. The Church Lads' Brigade was formed, in 1891, in London; and exists for the purpose of instilling into boys, who are members of the Church, the duties of their religion by means of regular discipline. The movement spread rapidly, till now companies of the brigade are to be found not only in all parts of the United Kingdom, but in most of the Colonies. In the British Isles the brigade has 122 active battalions. The organisation throughout is military; the officers in nearly all cases being ex-Army officers or volunteers or Territorials. Lads in each company are taught military drill, using for the purpose carbines; attached to each company is either a drum and bugle band, or a fife and drum band. Church parades for companies and battalions are held at frequent intervals, and each company has its weekly guild or Bible class. One of the features of the brigade is the annual camp. For this purpose regiments unite to form a brigade, or go to camp separately as a regiment. (See **BOYS' CAMPS**.) On exactly similar lines is managed the London Diocesan Boys' Brigade, the Roman Catholic Boys' Brigade, and the Boys' Brigade; in the second membership is restricted to Roman Catholic boys; the last is undenominational.

Following the idea of training boys by means of military discipline, the Boy Scouts' movement was started, independent, however, of military organisation. The object of the scoutmaster is to instil into his boys the duties of honour, truth, and purity, together with a meaning of chivalry and citizenship. A scout law has been published, and is expected to be kept by every boy scout. One of its chief rules is the

performance each day of some action for another. The movement is undenominational; and attracts, as a rule, boys rather younger than the older organisations. Roughly speaking, a boy is a scout while still at school; the brigades are composed more of boys at work. Directly borrowed from the idea of General Baden-Powell's Boys' Scouts, the Church Lads' Brigade has started Church Scout Patrols, membership of which is confined to those who belong to the Church.

All this organisation for the training of boys cannot but be regarded as good. Discipline ceases suddenly when a boy leaves school to the detriment of both employer and employee. Anything which counteracts this should be encouraged. But these movements seek mainly to raise the moral standard of the boys whom they enrol; to teach them the duties of their religion and their obligations to their country.

Boys' Camps.—(See also **BOYS' BRIGADES AND BOY SCOUTS** and **BOYS' CLUBS**.) The summer camp is often, except for bank holidays, the only holiday of the year for the boys. It is desirable, therefore, that it should last for two weeks. Expense, of course, has to be taken into consideration, and if one week only is possible on this account, the money spent is well invested. It must also be remembered that though a boy in camp is willing to do almost any amount of work demanded, he is on a holiday, and, therefore, should not be given a lot of drudgery. To take a boy to camp and make him serve all day long in the canteen is not much good for either boy or canteen; and the same applies to other kinds of work. The organisation and management of a camp necessarily depend on its size. The more boys taken, the more discipline there must be; and conversely, since with fewer boys there is more

freedom and less rule, so the camp is more thoroughly enjoyed.

The choice of a site is important. Roughly speaking, camps at the seaside are worth much more than camps inland. Remember that tent pegs won't hold in a gale if the subsoil is sand; and that though the camp must be within reasonable distance of a source for water, milk, and food supply, yet its freedom is spoilt if it is in a town. Beware also of being too near nigger minstrels and other forms of entertainment common to certain seaside places.

The outfit necessary for the camp depends again upon its size. For a camp of 100 boys, a large marquee, to serve as mess tent and canteen, is necessary; a recreation tent for use in wet weather, and for the evening sing-song; a Church tent; stores and cooks' tent; bell tents for sleeping purposes, allowing seven or eight boys to a tent; a larger camp will have a separate canteen tent; a hospital tent, or even two; a post office tent, and possibly an officers' mess and reading tent, but there is a danger in this, that officers will use their own tent and forget that they should be with their boys. The officers' sleeping tents should be alongside of the boys' sleeping tents. Each boy must be supplied with a ground sheet, a mattress filled with straw, three army blankets, and possibly a pillow, though this is a luxury. All ordinary crockery, etc., kitchen and cooking utensils must be provided; nor must be forgotten a piano and a supply of games for the recreation tent.

If the camp is very large, officers will probably feed at a different time from the boys; if it is not too large, it is much better that officers and orderlies should feed together and then wait on the others afterwards. It is not good to separate more than can be helped the officers

from the boys. Orderlies from amongst the boys will be appointed to do the work of the camp each day, and officers should take a full share in this. A moderate diet is as follows:—

Breakfast: Porridge, bread and butter, tea.

Dinner: Hot joint and two vegetables, pudding.

Tea: Tea, bread and jam, cake.

Supper: Cocoa and biscuits.

Reveille: 6.30 a.m. Lights out, 9.45 p.m.

Care must be taken about bathing, and a rule made that no boy may bathe unless an officer is present. Rules in camp should be very few, but those few strictly maintained. The penalty for breaking the bathing rule should be to send the boy home at once.

Such rules as the forbidding of cigarette smoking are fussy, and never prevent the boys who wish to smoke from doing so (see JUVENILE SMOKING).

Organised games, amusements, and excursions should take place, the officers joining with the boys in every case.

Camp is a great opportunity for getting to know boys well, so that the religious influence of a camp may be very great. It should not, however, be forced, and so unreal. If a daily Celebration of the Holy Communion in the Church tent is arranged, let it be at an hour when anyone who likes can attend. There is a danger in a large camp that the Sunday services, on account of the novelty of open air, etc., may be a hindrance rather than a help. Great care must, therefore, be taken as to the details of the services, the length of the sermon, and so on. Camp also gives officers a great chance to teach boys about their private prayers. Most boys are not taught what to say, nor how to say it; in camp the officers can go each to a tent at private prayer time,

and much valuable instruction can be given which may never be forgotten.

It is impossible to give any real idea of the cost of a camp. The cost must vary with each camp to such an extent that comparison with another is impossible ; but roughly, including railway fare and all expenses, it should not exceed 15s. or 12s. 6d. a week a head.

Boys' Clubs.—(See also LADS' CLUBS IN THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.) In nearly every city and town there exist clubs for boys ; some managed in connection with the church of the parish, others standing alone and unattached. In Manchester these clubs contain many hundreds of boys each ; further south, in Birmingham and London, the clubs are more numerous and very much smaller. There is much to be said for both systems. The large club gives scope in some ways for more to be done ; the small club has the advantage which more individual attention can give. Clubs for boys should have four sides : (1) The religious, which, in practice, must vary with the personality of the manager ; (2) the physical—provision of outdoor and indoor recreation : this is encouraged in London by means of the Federation of Working Boys' Clubs, which arranges inter-club games and competitions ; (3) the industrial, which seeks to place the members of the club in such situations as will offer permanent employment ; (4) the educational, which either provides classes on the premises, or arranges classes at evening schools (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS), at which its members can attend, in order that the boy may learn that theoretical side of his work which it is impossible for him to gain in the workshop.

Another feature of nearly every club is the annual camp (see BOYS' CAMPS), which takes place either at Whitsuntide or in August. By

means of camp, intimate relations are formed between the managers and the boys, and the latter set up in health for another year's work.

In order to start a boys' club, it is necessary to have one man as manager, who can give every evening to the work. He can then gather round him, in charge of the various departments, men who can spare one or two nights a week. The number of men required, and the cost of the club depend entirely on the size of the club. It is usual for each member to pay a weekly subscription.

For further information reference may be made to Russell & Rigby, *Working Boys' Clubs* ; Steffens, *Clubs and Club Work*, and *How to deal with Lads*, Canon Green.

Boys' Country Work Society.—(Hon. Organising Sec., Miss Iles, East Clevedon Vicarage, Somerset.) In 1908 a committee, now known as the Boys' Country Work Society, was formed to find good employment in the country for boys in danger of drifting into "blind-alley" occupations (see BOY LABOUR) in London. The committee meets in London, and works in co-operation with local committees in rural districts. The duty of the London committee is to collect boys most suitable for work in the country, and to provide them with the necessary outfit of working clothes. Boys who have recently left school are preferred to those who have begun to be casual labourers. The boys are reached through employment centres, settlements (*q.v.*), the Church Army, lads' clubs, and similar organisations in touch with boys. Before a boy is accepted by the committee, information as to himself and his family, his previous record, and his school character is collected, to which is added a medical report dealing with the boy's fitness for agricultural employment. The local committees

in the country make full inquiries concerning farmers, and arrange that visitors may see the boys from time to time and report on their progress to the committees. Such committees are specially successful in Devon and Cornwall, where a system of apprenticeship prevails, under which, for the first six months, the farmer takes the boy into his own home, boarding him, and giving him a small sum weekly for pocket-money. After six months a wage is usually paid. Boys have also been sent to Warwickshire, Yorkshire, Wales, Worcestershire, Huntingdonshire, Dorset, and other counties. The demand for boys varies in the different rural districts, but, speaking generally, boys receive at starting from 6d. to 1s. a week, in addition to good board and lodging in the farmhouse, and training in their work. Farmers generally have welcomed the scheme. The number of boys being helped in 1910 was about 120, a number which, with the progress of the scheme, will doubtless increase. So excellent a society, enabling, as it does, social workers in town and country to co-operate, should receive increasing support.

Boys' Homes.—Homes for boys of school age are to be found all over the country as private ventures, and in connection with such institutions as the Church of England Waifs' and Strays' Society and Dr. Barnardo's Homes. (See also CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.) These homes, for the most part, maintain children till they leave school, and then either place them out in situations in England or send them to the Colonies. (See also BOYS' COUNTRY WORK SOCIETY and COLONISATION.) In order to meet the demand of those who obtain employment at home, Homes for working boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen have been started. It is the object of such

homes to provide in as natural a way as possible a home worthy of the name. Both large and small homes are to be found, but the small home, containing not more than twenty-five boys, has proved to be the more efficient. In charge of a home there must be a superintendent and matron, and, if possible as well, a gentleman. The responsibility of obtaining employment rests with the Head of the Home and not with the boys, and it is possible then to see that such work is obtained as will lead to regular adult employment. One of the chief uses of such Homes is that they afford an opportunity for homeless boys to learn a skilled trade. The wages obtained at first from skilled employment are insufficient to allow a boy to maintain himself in lodgings alone, and unless in a Home, he is bound to procure unskilled or messenger work, whatever his capabilities. Each boy pays to the Home from his wages, weekly, in accordance with a sliding scale fixed by the amount earned. Thus a boy earning 8s. a week will pay 5s. 10d. to the home, and 1s. 2d. to his bank for clothing, etc.; he will then have 1s. pocket-money. The payment to the home includes board, lodging, washing, and all necessary expense. It is important not to mingle in one Home boys of different types (*e.g.*, the criminal boy and the boy of good character). Where this has been tried, the experiment has proved a failure. There is great need for more Homes for working boys managed on sound lines. It is found generally that the boys' payments cover about 50 per cent. of the total cost of the Home for one year, and that for a Home of twenty-five boys the cost above boys' payments is about £400. This is a large sum to spend on what is comparatively so small a number of boys; but the work is essentially constructive, and has

been proved to be worth the expenditure. Four sides must be found in each Home : the religious, physical, industrial, and educational (see BOYS' CLUBS); it is important that these should be developed equally, and not one or two at the expense of the others.

Boys' Shelters.—Since a boy under sixteen years of age may not enter a common lodging house (*q.v.*), and since it is most undesirable that a youth at any time should enter such a place, boys' shelters have been formed by such organisations as the Church of England Temperance Society and the Church Army (*q.v.*). These shelters do not seek to provide for the boy a Home in the sense in which the word is used when applied to Boys' Homes (*q.v.*), but they do offer him shelter at a most critical time in his life. Boys who are admitted to these shelters come often through the agency of the police or police court missionary (*q.v.*), or on their discharge from prison. In nearly every case they have already lost their character. The shelter is in charge of a man and his wife, and offers the boy food and lodging in return for work (*e.g.*, wood chopping, done on the premises). His length of stay depends rather upon himself. If it seems likely that he will gain by a long stay in the shelter, he is kept, and placed out in a situation, often on a farm in the country or on a ship in the mercantile marine. If not, the superintendent does his best to find him some employment before he is discharged to his friends. These shelters deal with a very rough class of boys; many of them criminal, and nearly all boys who do not know the meaning of regular, constant work, but who pick up a living as best they can in the streets by selling or begging.

Boys' Workshops.—(See also TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES.) There exist several

workshops in which boys alone are employed learning some trade or other. They are of two kinds. The first are those attached to some organisation, such as The Sisters of the Church. Homeless boys are maintained in a home (see BOYS' HOMES) and employed on the premises, doing work which the institution needs. Thus printing and the trades which concern personal dress are taught; and the product used entirely by the institution. The second are those competing in the ordinary way with the outside market. One of the best known is St. Crispin's Workshop, under the management of Cambridge House. Only boys who are cripples are employed, since on account of the Workmen's Compensation (*q.v.*) Act they find it almost impossible to learn a trade in an ordinary workshop. The trades taught are boot-making and brushmaking. First-class instructors are employed, and the boys taught only the best workmanship. Successful as this experiment is from the point of view of the boys' training, it is not financially a paying concern, since the wages of the instructors must be high, in order to obtain the best workmen, and the boys lose a lot of time through ill-health. The general public, too, are needlessly distrustful of the work turned out.

Brabazon Employment Society.—This Society was founded twenty-four years ago by the Countess of Meath, then Lady Brabazon. She offered a grant for materials to any workhouse or infirmary that would try her scheme. The offer was accepted, in 1883, by one workhouse infirmary, *viz.*, Kensington. At the beginning of 1892 there were but twenty branches formed, now there are over 300, which shows that the B.E.S. is at last being appreciated. Its object is to give an interest to the lives of that saddest

of all sad classes—the non-able-bodied paupers. These poor people—old, infirm, crippled, blind—are necessarily doomed to perpetual idleness so far as the workhouse officials are concerned. The aim of the B.E.S. is to alter this condition of things, by teaching these inmates light and pretty employment, without in any way interfering with the rules of the house. No inmate can be employed who is not exempt from work by the Guardians, and to whom the matron has not given her permission. The pride the pupils take in gradually producing good, saleable work helps to revive the self-respect lost by years of pauperdom, and their whole tone improves. All help given in teaching the various kinds of work is voluntary.

Each branch is self-supporting. Each has a yearly sale, which is held in order to provide money for fresh materials. Any profit made is used in various ways for the benefit of the workers. No money payments are admissible.

Central rules, as well as any further information, can be obtained of the Central Secretary, Brabazon Employment Society, 51, Upper Baker Street, London, N.W.

Bravery, Rewards for.—(See also **HEROES, DEPENDENTS OF.**) In addition to the rewards for gallantry which can only be gained by soldiers or sailors, and the medals granted by the Board of Trade to seamen for saving life at sea, there is the King's Police Medal, which was instituted, in 1909, for members of a recognised police force or of a properly organised fire brigade, within the empire, who "have performed acts of exceptional courage and skill or have exhibited conspicuous devotion to duty." Another section of the community whose work provides occasion for noble acts of bravery may be rewarded by the Edward Medal intended for

those who endanger their own lives "in saving or endeavouring to save the lives of others from perils in mines and quarries." Special provision is made for the gaining of this reward by women. One reward—the Albert Medal—may be gained by anyone who performs a conspicuous act of gallantry in saving life either by land or sea. There are also various voluntary organisations which supplement the State's recognition of bravery. The Royal Humane Society grants several hundreds of medals every year for rescues or attempted rescues from drowning, or from suffocation by foul gas in mines, etc., and also awards certificates for the prompt application of treatment to the apparently drowned or dead. The Royal National Lifeboat Institution awards medals to the coxswains, crews, and helpers of lifeboats for conspicuous bravery, and also grants medals and certificates and money to those who, at the risk of their own lives, save or endeavour to save, by means of shore boats or otherwise, life from shipwreck on the coasts of the United Kingdom. The Society for the Protection of Life from Fire gives similar rewards for rescue of life from fire. Among the objects of the Carnegie Hero Fund is "to place those following peaceful vocations, who have been injured in heroic effort to save human life, in somewhat better positions pecuniarily than before, until again able to work." The field embraced by the fund is the British Islands and the waters thereof. Every section of the community, as, for example, doctors and nurses volunteering their services in the case of epidemics, is included within its scope. (See also **ROYAL LIFE-SAVING SOCIETY.**)

Breach of Promise of Marriage.—(See **HUSBAND AND WIFE.**)

Bread, Sale of.—Bread must be sold by weight unless it is "fancy

bread" of which the judicial definition is: "In order to make it fancy bread, the bread in question must be something which to the eye is so distinct from household bread that it is not liable to be confounded with it by those who did not know the intricacies of the trade." The appearance is the determining factor and not the quality. It does not matter whether the bread is sold in a shop or from a cart, the baker is equally required to weigh it upon demand by the purchaser. The Bread Act provides an alternative procedure to the Food and Drugs Act for the punishment of adulteration (*q.v.*). Any person making or exposing for sale any bread, made wholly or partially of peas, bran, or potatoes (except potato yeast) or any sort of grain other than wheat, shall cause such bread to be marked with a large Roman letter M. It is obvious that the chief value of this legislation is for the protection of the poor with whom bread is such an important article of diet.

Bribery, Prevention of.—(See ILICIT COMMISSIONS.)

Bricklaying.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

British and Foreign Blind Association.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

British Hospitals Association.—The organisation formerly known as the Hospitals Association has been revived under this title, and has for its objects (1) to facilitate the consideration and discussion of matters connected with hospital management, and, where advisable, to take measures to further the decisions arrived at; and (2) to afford opportunities for the acquisition of a knowledge of hospital administration, both lay and medical. The chief means adopted to further these purposes is the holding of an annual conference for the consideration of matters relating to

hospital administration and construction, hospital management, medical relief, medical education in relation to hospitals (*q.v.*), provident dispensaries (*q.v.*), the Poor Law and other kindred subjects. Membership consists chiefly of, though is not limited to, those who are actually engaged in hospital administration.

British Institute of Social Service.

—The object of the Institute is to collect, register, and disseminate information relating to all forms of social service in order (1) to make such information available to all concerned in the improvement and elevation of the national life; (2) to promote the initiation and development of the most beneficial forms of social service; and (3) to give assistance to all organisations that have social aims, with a view to facilitating united action. Besides replying to inquirers from all parts of the country and even of the world, the institute issues a quarterly magazine entitled *Progress*, containing a great deal of information useful to social workers. A useful feature is the list of the previous quarter's publications on social topics. *Progress* is also the official organ of the National League for Physical Education and Improvement (*q.v.*). Membership of the institute is open to subscribers of not less than one guinea per annum, but information is supplied gratuitously. Provision is made for the formation of local branches. Associates may be enrolled upon a payment of not less than 5s. per annum. The Institute has prepared bibliographies (*q.v.*) upon social subjects, and some of the most important have been published. Naturally this research work requires a good library, which is steadily being collected, and by systematic collation is made available for ready reference.

British Women's Emigration Association.—(See COLONISATION.)

Brush-making.—(See **BOYS' WORKSHOPS, SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION, and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.**)

Building Bye-Laws.—(See also **ARTISAN DWELLINGS, BLOCK DWELLINGS, CLOSING ORDERS, GARDEN CITIES, HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, OVERCROWDING, RURAL HOUSING, SMALL SLUMS and TOWN PLANNING.**) The building of all new houses is regulated by building bye-laws based on model clauses issued by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), under Section 157 of the Public Health Act, 1875, and adopted as a matter of duty by the various district councils. They regulate the width and construction of streets, the thickness of walls, and the material and method of construction, the roof, chimneys, drainage, sanitary accommodation, ventilation and open space round buildings, as well as the sizes and nature of many of the materials used. Hence they have a far-reaching influence on the cost of road-making and building, as well as on the appearance, arrangement, and convenience of the roads and buildings constructed when an estate is being developed. New model bye-laws were issued by the Local Government Board in 1903 for rural districts, and in 1904 for urban districts. It is open to the Council of a district, partly urban and partly rural, to adopt parts of the urban and the rural model codes and so frame a blend that may suit the local requirements.

Rural district councils (*q.v.*) may obtain the power to make bye-laws by applying for an order to that effect, or by adopting Part 3 of the Public Health Acts Amendment Act, 1890.

The rural model code relates to eight matters only: (1) The

structure of walls and foundations of new buildings for purposes of health; (2) the sufficiency of space about buildings to secure a free circulation of air; (3) the ventilation of buildings; (4) the drainage of buildings; (5) water-closets, earth-closets, privies, ashpits, and cesspools in connection with buildings; (6) the closing of buildings unfit for human habitation; (7) the keeping of water-closets supplied with sufficient water for flushing; (8) the observance and enforcement of such bye-laws by requiring notices and plans.

The structure of walls and foundations of new buildings is limited to purposes of health; stability does not come in, as is the case in London. Wooden cottages may, therefore, be built where the rural code obtains or where the urban code has been adopted with the exemption clause, or, of course, where no bye-laws exist.

Any district which secures a town plan may insert therein provisions for suspending or modifying the bye-laws in the area planned, and the Local Government Board may revoke any local bye-laws where they reasonably impede building operations in any district. Thus cheaper roads can now be constructed where traffic is not heavy, and a saving effected to the extent of over £100 per acre, thus enabling an equal quantity of land to be given up for open spaces, since, under the present system, the cost of road-making is often greater than that of the land itself. The Hampstead Garden Suburb Trust secured this power of modifying local bye-laws by means of a special local Act. The Local Government Board is the supreme authority in settling the limit as to open space, width of streets, thickness of walls, and other matters above mentioned, which are dealt with in the Building Bye-laws.

Building Trades.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Burial Authorities.—These are : Under the Burial Acts, in London, the common council of the City (*q.v.*) and the Metropolitan borough councils ; out of London, borough and other urban district councils, burial boards, parish councils, etc. Under the Public Health (Interments) Act, 1879 (out of London), borough and other urban district councils, and rural district councils : Local authorities having powers with regard to burial grounds under local Acts. Central authorities are, for certain purposes, the Home Office (*q.v.*) ; in other respects, the Local Government Board (*q.v.*).

Burial of the Dead.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Burial Societies.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES AND THRIFT.)

Bursars.—(See also PUPIL TEACHERS.) Apart from the familiar use as applied to an official of a college, the Scottish use of the word " bursar " has been adopted recently in England. A local education authority (*q.v.*) may recommend to the Board of Education (*q.v.*) for recognition as bursars boys or girls who intend to become elementary school teachers, and are attending full time at a secondary school (*q.v.*), where they have been for three years, but whose continuance at the school is not financially possible without the assistance of a bursarship. The candidate must be between the ages of sixteen and eighteen, and will be recognised for only one year, as it is expected that at the end of that period he will be able to pass his examination for admission to a training college. An alternative is that he may become a student teacher (*q.v.*).

Button-carding.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Buttonhole-making.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Bye-laws, etc., of Local Authorities.—The statutory powers of many local authorities include important powers of control by means of bye-laws and regulations. This is especially the case in sanitary matters. Such bye-laws and regulations, for the most part, require confirmation (or the equivalent) by a central authority—usually the Local Government Board (*q.v.*). The subjects on which bye-laws and regulations may be made are too numerous for separate mention.

Cabinet-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Cabdrivers.—The law in relation to cabs in the Metropolis is contained in one set of statutes and in another for those outside that area. There may, therefore, be differences, especially in regard to the administrative regulations, and it is not possible to make a general statement applicable to the whole country. It may be noted, however, that the licence necessary to drive either a horse or taxi-cab is to be obtained from the police authorities. In the case of the latter, the law does not require evidence of skill, but companies owning cabs, in fact, do give men some training in driving before providing them with regular employment.

"Ca-canny."—Various trade unions (*q.v.*) have from time to time attempted to fix not only the amount of time wage, but also the quantity of work to be done for it. The fifth bye-law of the Bradford Lodge of the Labourers' Union of 1867 was quoted before the Trade Union Commission as saying : " You are strictly cautioned not to outstep good rules by doing double the work you are required . . . in order to gain a smile from the masters." The Manchester Bricklayers' Association were stated to have a rule fining a man 2s. 6d. for

the first offence if he worked beyond a certain speed. Although these rules were universally condemned, it was recognised as a necessary protection of collective bargaining that one man should not under-bid another in money or by the offer of more work for the same hour's wage. While it is not surprising that the workmen should adopt such measures in their own defence at that time, it is now admitted that systematic loitering will destroy the character of the most resolute worker, and the doctrine of "Cannery" cannot be regarded as likely to be of ultimate benefit to the worker. In 1891 the Executive Committee of the National Union of Dock Labourers in Liverpool advocated this policy, but it was denounced by responsible trade union officials; and in 1896 a similar policy was rejected by the International Federation of Ship, Dock, and River Workers.

Camps.—(See BOYS' CLUBS and BOYS' BRIGADES.)

Canada, Colonisation in.—(See also COLONISATION.) A great exodus takes place each spring and summer to this fine British Dominion. During 1910, 186,000 emigrants have moved from England to Canada. The short passage, the cheap fare, and the already large number of friends and relatives in British North America will always draw crowds of persons desiring to improve their condition of life. To social workers the chief difficulty lies in the refusal of the Dominion Government to accept any but our best available, and to block as far as possible any person sent by charitable societies. This is a self-defence against undesirable persons sent in crowds by various English agencies and not yet assimilated to the better health of the body politic. Persons receiving any charitable aid must fill in a paper

of record, must go only to the land, and must have a definite post awaiting them. They must also be in perfect health and possess £5 on landing. In thus trying honestly to protect Canada from becoming a refuge for incapables, the Government has, perhaps, made the entrance a little too difficult for many worthy but needy British folk. Relaxation of the hardest rules of landing seems probable. Newfoundland is not incorporated with Canada. There are many good positions for farm hands in the Eastern and nearest lands. The Dominion Government carries on in Victoria Street its central and admirably organised work of instructing our people and bidding for good emigrants. To survey the whole would be impossible. A few notes on separate parts of this huge Continent must suffice.

There has been a great rush to the Far West from the Eastern State of Quebec, Montreal, and Ontario. There are, therefore, many vacancies each spring in the fruit farms of Ontario, while the towns are also anxious to get more skilled labour. Toronto and the Lake towns call out for factory hands of the right sort, while the settled Eastern States can employ many persons willing to learn and to labour without grumbling. The Great plains are still unsatisfied; they call for more and more. To meet the men with families, the Canadian Pacific Railway has built farmhouses on its property, and welcomes men with small capital, on a ready-cleared holding, with a decent residence. The granaries of Canada—Manitoba and Alberta—are multiplying their townships at a rate which is hardly equalled by the swift tide of immigration. British Columbia, on the Pacific slope, has a climate not unlike that of England and is developing with great strides into a country of orchards

and mines. Men of leisure and of a little capital find a 100 acres of fruit in British Columbia sufficient to employ their energies and repay their toil. The chief equipment for success in Canada is not merely health and strength, muscle, or even money; it is a persistent and dogged character which is content to toil for one or two years in solitude and much discomfort. No person with poor courage, mentally backward, or morally weak should be sent. Owing to the "mixed multitudes" of Canada, the moral atmosphere is not of the clearest; young lads and girls should only be sent under strict and careful guidance; close attention should be given to the "lodgings" offered in the towns. Owing to no faults of organisation, but to the rapid growth of the "townships" and the very mixed population ever pouring into the new provinces, the moral ideals of the small communities are far from being high. The openings for fully certificated female teachers are good; salaries beginning from £12 a month and rising each year. The teachers' work is as highly valued as it is well paid. The influence of good women on the rising generation is of untold value, and should call many women of high character and missionary tendencies to the work of refining our Canadian children.

Again, as new and difficult regulations are made so often, it is better simply to refer the worker to the Emigration Committee's excellent handbooks for impartial and up-to-date information.

The following are the names and addresses of the official agents resident in London:—

High Commissioner 17, Victoria Street, S.W.

Emigrants' Office: 11 and 12, Charing Cross, S.W.

Novia Scotia: 57a, Pall Mall, S.W.

New Brunswick: Norfolk House, Laurence Pountney Hill, E.C.

Prince Edward Island: 78, Basinghall Street, E.C.

Ontario: 163, Strand, W.C.

Canal Boat Children.—This class of children presents a special and difficult problem to the social worker. The canal boat population is scattered over many parts of England and, wanders incessantly from one place to another. In a large number of cases the parents take their children with them to help in the working of the boats, and teach them from a very early age to be useful in driving canal boat horses, shutting lock gates, and in the steering and domestic work of the boats. It is not surprising that such a life is productive of evil. The unceasing wandering of the children prevents them from receiving any regular education. The narrow accommodation of the boats, in which in very many cases families have to eat and sleep, causes overcrowding and insanitary conditions dangerous to the health and morals of the children. In some cases such evils are avoided by obtaining accommodation for women and children in houses. Other evils connected with canal boats are the frequent accidents with which children meet in the course of the work, especially through fire, the cruelty with which some of them are treated, and the long hours which very many have to work.

Canal boats are controlled by two Acts of Parliament passed in 1877 and 1884. The former provided for the registration of all such boats used as dwellings, gave the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) power to make regulations controlling the registration, ordered every canal boat to carry a certificate giving particulars as to its inmates, and gave sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) powers to inspect the boats and take steps against the spread

of infectious diseases (*q.v.*). The Act of 1884 made various provisions strengthening the previous Act, but much remains to be done in enforcing and strengthening the present law on the subject. At present efficient and systematic inspection is very difficult, especially in rural districts, whilst occasional observation is useless. The result is that the Acts dealing with the education and employment of children are still evaded by this section of the population. Unfortunately the Children Act of 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER) has not made provision for these children. Some authorities maintain that no child under the age of fourteen should be permitted to reside in or travel on a canal boat. Others hold that they should be allowed on the boats during holiday seasons. It is generally agreed that inspectors should have increased authority. Also it is necessary to reform the system of registration in order that the number of boats in use may be known. Further information on this subject may be obtained from the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (*q.v.*).

Care Committees.—(See CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES.)

Care of the Feeble-minded.—(See ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Carnegie Hero Fund (Dunfermline N.B.).—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR, and HEROES, DEPENDENTS OF.)

Carpentry.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Case Paper System.—If relief is to be adequate and effectual for the permanent uplifting of the family, it is essential that it should be given with full knowledge of the past history of the applicant, the causes of present distress, and the future possibilities or opportunities of independence. Under the Poor Law,

this information is recorded in the Application and Report Book, together with the decisions of the Guardians on particular cases. These books, when filled, are necessarily laid aside and replaced by new ones, and every application has to be entered afresh. Knowledge of previous applications, changes in circumstances, and past decisions can only be obtained by reference to previous books. It is a "cumbersome process, and often means that voluminous transcripts must be made from books" which have long since been stored away. The Commissioners of 1909 (see POOR LAW REFORM) speak of it as a "weak spot in administration," and recommend that particulars of relatives liable to maintain; details as to the circumstances of the applicant and his family; correspondence with different people about the case; reports of the collectors or general relieving officers (*q.v.*); particulars of help from charitable sources, pensions, clubs, etc., should be kept in a handy and concise manner if there is to be full and accurate knowledge when a decision has to be made. The Case-paper or History Sheet system is an attempt to simplify and record accurately in a concise form the history and particulars of individual cases; and where it is in use the Guardians and officers have not only a complete story of the applicant's history as affecting his distress, but a full record of the decisions of the Guardians on previous occasions. The fundamental principle underlying it is that "the family may be placed in its proper position as the indivisible unit in civil life. As the individual is the unit out of which the family is built, so the family is the unit out of which the State is built. As the dismemberment of the body means the dissolution of the individual, so the dismemberment of the

family means the ultimate death of the State."

The case paper is a form generally of foolscap size, containing all the headings prescribed in the application and report book, with additions which have been found useful. A summary form is added containing the orders and decision of the Guardians, and when the history sheet is completed it will give full information as to relatives; reports of the general relieving officer as to relatives and others outside the Union; reports from other Guardians; certificates of district medical officers (see MEDICAL RELIEF); reports from the C.O.S. (*q.v.*) or parochial relief committees (*q.v.*); letters received and press copies of letters written in connection with the case; details as to settlement, etc. (see SETTLEMENT AND REMOVAL OF PAUPERS). The system is particularly useful in enabling Guardians to come to a right decision as to how best to deal with children. The Local Government Board (*q.v.*) have recently reported their intention of making the system compulsory, and those boards of guardians who have adopted it bear testimony not only to the saving of labour, but also to the ultimate saving of expense. Specimen case papers are printed in the Statistical Appendix (Part xix) of the Poor Law Commissioners' Report, 1909.

When the history sheet is complete, it is indexed on the card system, and reference can quickly and easily be made to the case.

Briefly the advantages are these:—

1. It is possible to carry out more effectually a system of classification (*q.v.*) based on accurate knowledge stored in an available manner.

2. The causes of pauperism can be more easily and manifestly ascertained.

3. There is greater opportunity for a definite and settled policy of

relief both indoor (*q.v.*) and outdoor (*q.v.*), and the disadvantages accruing from a change of relieving officer or a change in the *personnel* of a board of guardians are reduced to a minimum.

This system has been in use among voluntary societies for many years, and is most efficiently worked by the district committees of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*).

Casual Labour.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Casual Wards.—(See also INS AND OUTS.) Under the Casual Poor Act of 1882 it is permissive to attach to the workhouses (*q.v.*) under the administration of the local authority wards for the reception of vagrants (*q.v.*) and casual paupers. In these a task of work has to be performed and in return food and two nights' lodging are given. The exact words of the law are: "That a Casual shall not be allowed to discharge himself before 9 a.m. of the second day following his admission nor before he has performed the task of work prescribed for him."

The number of admissions to casual wards in the Metropolis in 1882 was 294,960; and the number in 1910 was 190,372, showing a decrease of 104,588. In 1886, however, the number was only 108,293, so that there has been a large increase on the smallest number shown. It must be borne in mind that vagrants are admitted into casual wards on numerous occasions during a year, so that these numbers do not indicate the total number of vagrants relieved.

The average number of paupers relieved in the casual wards of the Metropolis on a Friday night during 1908 was 1,114, including 191 women and 9 children, and in 1910, 1,099, including 159 women and 5 children.

By the Casual Poor Act of 1882, it is provided that where a casual

pauper has been admitted on more than one occasion during one month into any casual ward in the Metropolis he shall not be entitled to claim his discharge before 9 a.m. of the fourth day after admission, Sunday not being included in the computation.

The number of casual paupers identified for purposes of detention in 1909 was 20,193. The Departmental Committee on Vagrancy has made various excellent recommendations as to dealing with the casual poor—the need of differentiation of classes, way tickets, uniformity of treatment, etc. Most of these still need to be carried into effect. The casual wards are under the charge of a Master and Matron and are constructed on the cellular system. The task work consists of oakum picking, stone breaking, corn grinding, or wood cutting.

In the country the numbers making use of the casual wards show no sign of decrease, though the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) Inspector for N. and S. Wales and Monmouthshire writes:—"In those Unions where the Guardians tackle the problem in a resolute and bold manner, they are generally successful in reducing their number to manageable dimensions. It is only in those Unions, where a lax enforcement of the orders as to detention, task of work, etc., is in vogue that serious trouble and inconvenience are experienced owing to a large influx of casu-als."

Whatever form legislation may take as a result of the recent reports, and nearly all experts are agreed that it is high time "something should be done," it is to be hoped that casual wards for women will cease to exist and that no encouragement will be given to women to "take to the road."

Catholic Boys' Brigade.—(See BOYS' BRIGADES AND BOY SCOUTS.)

Cellar Dwellings.—(See SMALL SLUMS AND UNHEALTHY HOUSES.)

Census.—The first proposal in Parliament that there should be a numbering of the people in the British Isles was made, in 1753, by Mr. Thomas Potter, a son of the then Archbishop of Canterbury. The Bill was strongly opposed, mainly on the ground that the proposed enumeration might form the basis for new taxation. With Government support, however, it was passed through the House of Commons, but was thrown out by the House of Lords. Public opinion underwent a change before the end of the century, and was further affected by the publication, in 1798, of Malthus' well-known *Essay on the Principles of Population*. Parliament accordingly authorised, in 1800, the taking of a census in the following year, and it has been repeated every ten years. Of course, the returns in the earlier decades of the century are not so comprehensive as in the later. Many of the figures had to be supplied by the clergy, as the civil registration of births, deaths, and marriages had not as yet been established. Now the preparations for the census occupy a special staff under the direction of the Registrar-General (*q.v.*) for some months. The proceedings are regulated by Act of Parliament, which (taking the Act of 1910 as an example) requires the census to be taken on April 2nd, 1911. The work is done by the Registrar-General, under the general supervision of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*). A large body of enumerators is employed to distribute and collect the forms, which have to be filled up by occupiers of houses. The particulars to be furnished for each household are: (1) Name, age, sex, profession or occupation, condition as to marriage,

relation to head of family, birth-place, and (in case of persons born abroad) nationality; (2) whether blind, deaf, dumb, imbecile, or lunatic; (3) in the case of married persons—an entirely new provision—duration of marriage, and number of children living; (4) number of rooms inhabited; (5) in Wales and Monmouth, as to persons not under three years of age, language—whether English, Welsh, or both.

In view of the objection felt to supplying the information for various reasons, it is important to note that each enumerator is bound to observe secrecy. The comprehensive reports containing the results of the Census, which are presented to Parliament, should be in every public library, and include a mass of valuable information for all who are concerned with the social conditions of the people. It may be useful, briefly, to denote the main heads of the statistical tables. A description of the various areas into which the country is divided is followed by exact statistics of the population in which the depopulation of rural areas is a well-known feature. The housing conditions are shown by the next set of tables, which provide precise information as to the extent of overcrowding in urban districts. The personal information, if so it may be described, though not referring to individuals, enables comprehensive comparisons to be made of the condition of the people in the different decades. A survey of the whole Census is contained in the general report, which, with the report referring to the particular county in which the inquirer is interested, furnishes all the information that is likely to be required by the social worker, except in cases of special research, and can be obtained at the cost of a few shillings (see PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS).

Central Bureau for the Employ-

ment of Women.—(See also NATIONAL UNION OF WOMEN WORKERS and WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT SOCIETY.) The Bureau in London is the central office of bureaux in Edinburgh, Dublin, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, Leeds, Birmingham, and Watford. Their object is to assist girls with advice and guidance, in their future work, whether in home life or any other occupation. If money is a difficulty, the Bureau organises a loan fund, from which the cost of training will be provided, and arrangements made for its repayment by instalments when the worker has obtained a post. The Bureau also arranges for girls to be comfortably housed and fed in a hostel. At the completion of her training she may obtain a post through the Bureau, in connection with which is issued a quarterly journal, *Women's Employment*. Assistance is given in arranging holidays. By means of the Thrift Department, women can be advised as to good and safe methods of investing capital, savings, etc., and be supplied with information as to the procuring of Old Age Pensions, provisions for sickness, insurance, etc. The Bureau also advises as to the financial value of any business which it is proposed to acquire, and full particulars can be given as to emigration and the training for Colonial life (see COLONISATION).

Central Council of London Health Societies.—(See MANSION HOUSE COUNCIL ON THE DWELLINGS OF THE POOR.)

Central Emigration Board.—(See COLONISATION.)

Central Midwives' Board.—(See MIDWIVES.)

Central Small Holdings Society.—This Society was established in 1904 to organise the movement for increasing the number of small holdings (*q.v.*), and to give help and

advice to intending small holders. The Society did most valuable work in helping to promote the Small Holdings Act of 1907, and it continues to watch the administration of the Act and to stir up interest in small holdings by arranging meetings and lectures, and organising local associations. It has been decided to amalgamate this Society with the Land Club League. Secretary, H. C. Carleton, 6, John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C.

Central (Unemployed) Body.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Cerebro-spinal Meningitis.—(See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Certificate of Death.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Certified Efficient Schools.—(See ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.)

Certifying Surgeons.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Chain-making.—(See TRADE BOARDS.)

Charitable Relief.—The path of those who would effectively and wisely assist others less fortunate than themselves is beset with many difficulties: much effort and money is spent, yet in so many instances there is no permanent benefit to the recipient. Sometimes the only thorough treatment would be so costly that there seems no possibility of applying it: sometimes the more one helps people the less capable or anxious they seem to help themselves. Not infrequently comes the disappointment of discovery that one has been taken in, and has wasted upon the unhelpable what is sorely needed for the relief of genuine distress.

At the root of the difficulty lies the futile and often mischievous dole system—a dole is a mere palliative which at the best staves off distress for a brief period only—and generally leaves the recipient no better off than before. It may even be cruel by encouraging the beneficiary to look for further help

of the same kind which will not be forthcoming. It may do actual mischief by postponing the necessity of recognising the cause of trouble, and of taking steps to remove it. The alternative to the dole system is thoroughness of treatment—based upon a definite plan of help devised to meet the root difficulty of each particular case. Such thoroughness of treatment is only possible after careful consideration of the cause, nature, and extent of the distress. It is sometimes supposed that inquiry is meant merely to discriminate between the so-called “deserving” and “undeserving” poor. Such a division is not, of course, the aim of true Charity: its object is to help those who are helpable, and the more thorough the inquiry the more often does one find an effective plan of help. Both this thorough understanding of the facts of a case, and the thorough treatment of it, can only be accomplished by co-operation with others, who know, or may be willing to help the person in distress. A valuable aid to such co-operation is to be found in the mutual registration of assistance (*q.v.*), which the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), and other bodies are now providing in many places. Different agencies see the same persons from different points of view, and mutual consultation among them will often suggest an effective plan of help. Thorough treatment is often too expensive for a single person or agency to undertake, where the combined resources of all those who are interested in a case of distress, may be equal to the need. Sometimes a case is best left to a single agency so far as material help is concerned—when there happens to be an agency specially qualified to deal with it, *e.g.* Jewish cases, to the Jewish Board of Guardians (*q.v.*) and Foreigners to

the Benevolent Society supported by their own compatriots—or to the "Society of the Friends of Foreigners in Distress" (22, Wormwood St., E.C.). The social worker should know what the Poor Law Guardians can and will do in his district—and should leave to them the task of giving material help to such cases as they can more suitably deal with.

The guardians have greater resources in the way of institutions, funds, and powers of compulsion, for dealing with cases of chronic destitution, permanent disability, and bad character. Outdoor relief (*q.v.*) given by the guardians is frequently inadequate—though it need not be so—but against the temptation to supplement it should be set the consideration that by so doing one encourages the guardians to continue their policy of insufficient relief.

It should not be forgotten that the refusal of material assistance need not, and should not mean the abandonment of a case in other ways. Sometimes much may be done by the exercise of good influence, by useful advice and by encouragement to better effort. It has been said that one ought to try to help people *out of* their difficulties, and not merely *in* their difficulties.

The encouragement of self-reliance should be recognised as a duty by the social worker. Lavish and indiscriminate relief, which may be had for the asking, will soon lower the *morale* of a district. Against this, investigation is in itself a safeguard, and it will be found that people will often be stimulated to help themselves instead of asking for charity when once they find that indiscriminate giving has been abandoned.

Where people can provide themselves with the ordinary necessities of life, but are faced with some

special need which they cannot satisfy from their own resources—such as convalescent treatment, or the provision of surgical instruments—they should, at any rate, be required to bear as much of the expense as they can afford. Many opportunities will be found for encouraging thrift (*q.v.*)—such as the joining of sound friendly societies (*q.v.*) and provident dispensaries (*q.v.*) and the use of such opportunities will have a valuable effect on the well-being of the class whom one is trying to help.

So far as the prevention of imposture is concerned, it should be remembered that people of good character rarely resort to begging (*q.v.*) in the streets, or from door to door, and it is well known that unsatisfactory persons deliberately apply at unreasonable hours or at a considerable distance from their alleged homes, in order to render investigation difficult. Those in immediate necessity know that if they choose to do so they can at any time obtain food and shelter in the workhouse of the district in which they slept the previous night, or in the nearest casual ward (*q.v.*) if they are too far away from their previous night's lodging. Much waste of money would be avoided if charitable people would at least endeavour to have the applicant visited in his own home before giving assistance. In many instances the address given would be found to be non-existent: begging-letter writers generally address their letters from some tobacconist's shop where letters may be called for. If the home is within reach it is probable that at least one reference could also be visited on the way to it. The Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) in any district will always inquire into the facts of any case referred to them. The London Society issues a cautionary card to its

subscribers containing the names of the more notorious and persistent impostors, and a similar list is published by the journal, *Truth*. Sometimes an attempt is made to check imposture by limiting relief to the form of tickets for groceries, clothing, or coal, but experience shows that such tickets can easily be exchanged for cash or for goods other than those for which they are nominally issued while the presentation of such tickets by decent and respectable people betrays them to the tradesman as the recipients of charity. The ticket system tends also to divert the attention of the social worker from the real necessity of the case which may, and probably will, require much more planning and much more expenditure than the mere giving of a few groceries.

It is impossible to deal in detail with the various forms of distress or with the possible methods of alleviating it. Guidance as to certain classes of case should be sought under the special articles relating to them, such as the aged and infirm for whom pensions (*q.v.*) are required, orphans (see ORPHANAGES), widows (*q.v.*), and those physically or mentally afflicted, such as the blind (*q.v.*), deaf and dumb (*q.v.*), cripples (*q.v.*), feeble-minded (*q.v.*), and epileptics (*q.v.*). One should always consider whether a person who is *apparently* permanently dependent upon others cannot be rendered by suitable training, wholly or partly self-supporting. If this can be done the happiness and self-respect of the afflicted will be increased, and their drain upon the limited resources of charity diminished. A few words may be said on the treatment of distress caused by (a) the unemployment, or irregular employment, of the wage-earners of the family; (b) the chronic underpayment of the

wage-earners; (c) sickness; and (d) indebtedness. As regards (a) little unfortunately can be done by the social worker to apply a remedy unless he can personally hear of work for any of the wage-earners. Sometimes the position may be eased by getting the younger wage-earners into better work or by providing outfits to enable the girls to go into service, but as a rule the individual worker can effect little for the help of the unemployed (see UNEMPLOYMENT).

It is impossible to embark upon allowances for an indefinite period, and the receipt of such an allowance tends to slacken the wage-earner's own efforts to secure work unless he is of really good character. If a man is definitely promised work to begin within a few weeks the employer will probably give a written verification of the promise, and it may then be possible to get together an adequate allowance for the limited period which intervenes.

In cases of sickness much effort is often wasted by a failure to consult the doctor who has the case in hand as to the exact nature of the complaint—its probable duration, and the best kind of treatment, *e.g.* patients are often sent to a particular hospital or convalescent home, not because it is the most suitable for their complaint or condition, but because the visitor happens to be able to obtain a free letter for it without much difficulty. If the patient is attending a hospital the doctor should be consulted through the Lady Almoner (see HOSPITALS) if there is one.

If the sick person is sent away to a convalescent home (*q.v.*) or sanatorium it should not be forgotten that the rest of the family may need help meanwhile, or the patient may suffer by worrying as to their welfare. In cases of chronic illness it may be necessary

to urge admission to the Poor Law Infirmary (see INFIRMARIES), if proper diet and nursing cannot be supplied in the house or if the presence of the invalid is a danger to the other members of the family. On the other hand; many instances could be given where the care of the invalid calls out all that is best in the others.

Indebtedness, as a cause of distress, needs cautious handling. It is rarely advisable to pay off arrears of rent for people, as it encourages landlords to press tenants to beg for help under this plea and the money so spent really advantages the landlord only. The latter, if interviewed, will often agree to wait for his arrears to be paid off gradually or to release the tenant if the plan of help is to get the distressed family into less expensive rooms. People in debt would usually like to consolidate their debts and pay off one loan by regular instalments, but it will frequently be found that they feel less scruple about failing to repay a charitable loan than about repaying their tradesmen creditors. It is often worth while to intercede with the latter to accept gradual repayment, and if they are to be paid off by charitable help the payment should be made direct to the creditors as the latter will often agree to accept a smaller sum by way of composition.

Charities' Register and Digest.— (See ANNUAL CHARITIES' REGISTER AND DIGEST.)

Charity Commissioners.— (See ENDOWED CHARITIES.)

Charity Organisation Society.— (See also CHARITABLE RELIEF and SOCIAL WORKERS, TRAINING OF.) There are societies bearing this name in many towns in Great Britain, but though most of them are in correspondence with the original Society in London founded

in 1869, they are entirely independent of it, and the extent to which they follow its objects and methods varies considerably. It is only possible here to describe the work of the London Charity Organisation Society, which is a federation of forty-one district committees covering the Metropolitan Poor Law area (with the exception of a few outlying districts), together with Tottenham and the Stratford and Canning Town portions of West Ham. The Central Council is composed of representatives of these district committees and of leading metropolitan charities. The council discusses questions of public administration and social policy relating to the condition of the poor; and endeavours by communications to the Press, by representations to public authorities, and in other ways to influence public opinion in what it believes to be the right direction both in the best interests of the poor themselves and the community as a whole. Experts are invited from time to time to read papers on such subjects as the administration of the Poor Law, the care and control of the feeble-minded (*q.v.*), the repression of vagrancy (see VAGRANTS) the better provision of housing for the working classes, and the many other questions which are generally described as "social problems." Special committees are appointed, as occasion arises, to inquire into particular problems on which more complete information is desirable. For example, one examined the conditions of casual labour in London and the possible solutions of the difficulty; evidence was submitted by representatives of a number of large firms employing irregular labour, and a large amount of information on the subject was collected and analysed.

The Central Council has an administrative committee and various

sub-committees. The management and *bona fides* of charitable institutions are inquired into for the guidance of subscribers, to whom a cautionary card is periodically issued containing the names of unsatisfactory institutions and individuals who appeal to the public for support. The Society's publications include (1) *The Annual Charities' Register and Digest* (q.v.), price 5s. ; (2) *The Charity Organisation Review*, monthly, 6d. ; (3) a register of provincial Charity Organisation Societies, with an account of their work ; and (4) numerous pamphlets and leaflets on philanthropic work.

The Society has a social ideal, which it endeavours to advance both by its expression of opinion and by its own methods of operation ; it is that of a community of self-supporting citizens, with the family as the unit of social relations, and with a system of voluntary co-operation (through friendly societies (q.v.), trade societies, and the like) for mutual protection against the mischances of life. It believes that a robust and vigorous national character is only to be fostered by enforcing, upon all who are capable of it, the duty of supporting themselves and their families by their own labour, and it believes that voluntary combination for mutual protection draws some of the best human qualities into play. It seeks, therefore, to encourage people to join trades societies, sound benefit societies, provident dispensaries (q.v.), etc. ; and endeavours generally to promote a spirit of independence among the people. The Society's interest, therefore, in social legislation and public administration is based upon this ideal, and it deprecates anything which, in its opinion, tends to discourage thrift (q.v.), self-dependence, and parental or filial responsibility.

The district committees have each

an office and staff of workers (the majority unpaid), and their chief aims are : (1) To promote co-operation among the many charitable agencies of their district, (2) to act as centres of advice and information for social workers, (3) to promulgate what the Society believes to be wise principles of charitable effort. Their primary aim is to establish an organic relation between the existing charitable forces of their area, rather than to be one among other agencies for distributing charitable relief. At the same time, they undertake to investigate all cases of distress referred to them and to report the facts to the inquirer, together with recommendations as to the best methods of dealing with such cases. Where the inquirer is unable to deal with the case personally, the committee will endeavour so far as possible to carry out itself the treatment it recommends, in conjunction with the appropriate local and metropolitan agencies. The number of cases dealt with by the whole Society in the year 1909-10 was 21,783, and the total amount of money which passed through the Society's books for the relief of persons in distress was £39,688. The money spent on administrative expenses (including propagandist work) is raised as an entirely separate fund. The sum quoted as spent on relief represents only a portion of the whole amount received by persons in distress on the Society's recommendation, as much is given direct to the applicant by the person who referred the case for inquiry, or is represented by forms of assistance which cannot be calculated in money, such as admission into convalescent homes (q.v.), hospitals (q.v.), orphanages (q.v.), and other institutions on the Society's recommendations.

All cases are thoroughly investigated before the committee decides

what action to take, but the Secretary has discretionary authority to grant immediate interim assistance when necessary, and this is frequently done. The object of inquiry is not to discriminate between the so-called "deserving" and "undeserving," with a view to the giving of help to the former and the refusal of it to the latter, but is based upon the experience that only careful investigation can show in what way people can be most effectively and permanently benefited. At the same time, it is the belief of the Society that the absence of investigation is a direct incentive to dependence and pauperism, and that much money is unnecessarily spent on helping those who could quite well provide for themselves and would do so if charitable assistance were not to be had for the mere asking. Thus, where a family is able to provide itself with the ordinary necessities of life, but is unexpectedly confronted with exceptional expenses such as the provision of a surgical instrument or hospital, sanatorium, or convalescent treatment, then the object of investigation is to ascertain the exact treatment which will be most beneficial and complete, and the extent to which the family can contribute towards the expense; if the family is in need of ordinary maintenance, the object of inquiry is to ascertain the cause of distress and the means, if any, by which the family may be restored to a self-supporting condition.

In every case the committee seeks to deal thoroughly with the trouble, and refuses to grant doles which will not permanently deal with the difficulty. Inquiries are made of the relieving officers (*q.v.*), clergy, and ministers of religion, references given by the applicant and landlords at previous addresses. Employers are asked to verify past or present earnings, and relatives are

communicated with and asked to contribute to the help given, if in a position to do so. Neither the Central Council nor district committees have any general relief fund, but the local committee enlist the co-operation of appropriate local and metropolitan agencies, and of employers, relatives, and friends in raising the money required in each case.

Cases which cannot in the opinion of the committee be effectually assisted by charity are left to the Poor Law so far as material assistance is concerned, but the people are not necessarily written off as unhelpable. In many districts a "Friendly Visiting" Committee endeavours to keep in touch with the cases, and to help them by advice and encouragement to improve their condition. Efforts are made to get together adequate pensions (*q.v.*) for aged and infirm persons, if there is evidence of good character, industry, and reasonable efforts in the past to provide for old age, and when kinsfolk are willing to contribute according to their means, whether legally liable to do so or not. Pensions are never granted in supplementation of outdoor relief (*q.v.*) from the guardians.

Emigration work (see COLONISATION) is carried on in conjunction with the East End Emigration Fund, with which the Society shares an office and staff at 34, Newark Street, Stepney, E. In the treatment of invalid children the Society co-operates with the Invalid Children's Aid Association (*q.v.*). The repression of mendicity is not pursued now with much activity by the London Society, except in the case of professional begging-letter writers, but some of the provincial Charity Organisation Societies still undertake it. In London it is dealt with mainly by the London Mendicity Society (see BEGGING).

Full information about the work of the London Charity Organisation Society can be obtained on application at the Central Office, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W. (near Victoria Station). Secretary, Mr. C. S. Loch, Telephone No. 81, Westminster. Registered telegraphic address, "Organisation, London." No cases are dealt with by the central office, but advice may be obtained as to societies and institutions from which assistance may be sought for any particular case of distress. The most recent development of the Society's activity is the establishment of mutual registration of assistance (*q.v.*) at local centres, with a view to the encouragement of co-operation over case-work and the prevention of overlapping. A large number of agencies which deal with cases all over the Metropolis register them at the Central Office for distribution to the proper local centres.

Charity Voting Reform Association (Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.).—This Association was formed, in 1873, to organise and direct the movement against what is known as the Voting System by which many charitable institutions in England obtain financial support. By this system subscribers to the institution so supported receive a certain number of votes for their subscriptions—the number varying according to the amount they subscribe. The votes thus obtained may be given to anyone qualified to become an inmate of the institution. No person who fails to obtain votes can hope for admission into the majority of such institutions, and only a very small minority of those who obtain votes gain admission, since the number of applicants is necessarily much larger than the number of vacancies. It is obvious that such a system is bad.

It wastes the energies, time, and small means of the candidates and their friends and supporters. The elections need extensive and costly preparations by the institutions. A very large number of the votes polled are wasted with all the time and care taken to collect them. The system also occasions serious and unnecessary hardship to unsuccessful candidates, many of whom, depriving themselves and their families of necessary food and clothing, spend money on printing cards and postage, only to meet with hopeless failure. Again, such a system is inconsistent with charity, "because the more infirm, the more needy, the more suffering, and the more friendless the applicants may be, the less likely are they to obtain the benefits of a voting charity. The benefits must obviously go to those who have friends, influence or health, and strength, and a little money for electioneering expenses." Thus many for whom the institutions are founded and maintained have to endure burdens and disappointments, in addition to the troubles which they already have. The worker who disinterestedly helps a candidate to obtain votes may be doing irreparable harm to far more necessitous cases. Moreover, the begging for votes, which may be continued for years, is degrading to applicants, and tempts them to become persistent mendicants. Often, too, votes are openly bought and sold on "election days," which leads to professional canvassing and other like evils.

The Association, whose work the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) had, until 1873, undertaken, has carried on an active campaign against this evil. Successful appeals have been made to charitable institutions asking them to abolish the system. Many have done this. Others have introduced reforms, such as reducing the number of

candidates, or leaving a large number of votes in the hands of the committee, or putting an end to "election day" scandals. The Association has also urged the managers of institutions to investigate cases, in order to select for help the most needy and most deserving. At the same time, the Association has succeeded in educating public opinion by means of pamphlets and leaflets and meetings. The social worker should always aim at sending cases to institutions in which this system does not prevail, in order to bring it to an end. It is most prevalent among Orphan Asylums, Homes for Incurables (*q.v.*) and Benevolent Institutions.

Charwomen.—(See ASSOCIATION OF TRAINED CHARWOMEN.)

Cheap Trains.—One important factor in the solution of the housing problem is the provision of cheap and rapid means of transit. Parliament recognised the fact when passing the Cheap Trains Act in 1883, which enables the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) to take action if they have reason to believe that sufficient trains are not provided for workmen going to and from their work at such fares and at such times between the hours of 6 p.m. and 8 a.m. as appear to the Board to be reasonable. If the railway company and the Board of Trade are unable to agree as to the service which is necessary, the matter may be referred to the Railway and Canal Commissioners for decision. In practice their orders are complied with by the companies, but there is a power to enforce them by a procedure in the nature of a substantial monetary penalty. The companies are not obliged to create a demand by supplying a service of workmen's trains with a view to developing a new district, but, on the other hand, proof by

a railway company of no profit, or even a loss, on the workmen's trains in not sufficient answer to a complaint of the non-provision of "proper and sufficient workmen's trains" in accordance with the terms of the Act. It would appear from a dictum of Mr. Justice Wright in an application before the Railway Commissioners in 1899, that "workman" is not confined to manual labourers. On that occasion sorters and other post office officials were seeking increased railway facilities, and he thought that the Act should be construed so as to include them.

The Act deals with several other matters in relation to railway travelling, such as the fares for the conveyance of soldiers or policemen when on the public service.

Suggestions have been made to render the Cheap Trains Act more useful in assisting the solution of the housing problem by making some arrangement so as to secure the co-operation of the railway companies in the development of a new district. The Royal Commission on London Traffic, 1905, recommended, "That it would be an advantage if local authorities were enabled to make arrangements with railway companies whereby, in consideration of additional trains being put on, guarantees might be given for limited periods for such minimum receipts per train miles as might be agreed. In the event of difference, the Railway and Canal Commissioners might act as arbitrators. In this way local authorities, in co-operation with the owners of the land likely to be benefited by the running of the trains, might frequently, at a very small cost, secure the development of building land much more rapidly than can be done without the assistance of such arrangements."

Chelsea Pensioners.—(See VETERANS.)

Chemical Manufactures.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Chickenpox.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Child Emigration.—(See COLONISATION, CHILD.)

Child Labour.—The question of child labour falls under two heads : 1. The labour of children who are still in full school attendance, out of school hours ; 2. The labour of partial exemption scholars—children who, under the “ half-time ” system, are exempted from full school attendance for purposes of labour. It is convenient to consider these two divisions of the subject separately :—

1. *Labour and Learning.* In 1899 a Parliamentary return (see WAGE-EARNING CHILDREN COMMITTEE) was issued, embodying the result of inquiries from the elementary schools (*q.v.*) of England and Wales. An Inter-Departmental Committee on the subject was subsequently appointed, and they reported in 1901. The Parliamentary Return of 1899 (confessedly incomplete) gave returns respecting 144,026 children, regularly employed out of school hours. The periods of their employment ranged from ten to seventy hours a week. The Inter-Departmental Committee raised this estimate to 200,000. The work of the children falls into three main classes—time work, piece work, and domestic employment. Time work is chiefly that of errand-boys in shops ; piece work includes selling newspapers, and comprises miscellaneous occupations, such as “ knocking up,” acting as “ caddies ” on golf links (see GOLF CADDIES), “ taking dinners,” and the like ; domestic employment mainly absorbs the girls, while the other forms of work are for the most part pursued by boys. Some prominent

types of this child labour may be noticed in greater detail.

The type “ newsboy ” needs subdivision. At least 40,000 school-boys in England and Wales are employed by retail newsagents to deliver and sell morning and evening papers. The boys have their morning and evening rounds, in which they deliver papers at the houses of customers ; and, in addition, they sometimes cry papers in the streets—selling them, not on their own account, but on that of their employer. In some districts the delivery of Sunday papers occupies some hours of that day. While in the main there seems little objection to this form of child-labour, the Reports notice many cases of serious overwork. Teachers testified that boys, travelling long distances in the delivery of papers, were often half asleep in school time. The Return of 1899 gives these particulars of the daily routine of a newsboy, working 56½ hours a week, out of school hours : Monday to Friday, 7 to 8.45 a.m. ; 12 to 1, and 4 to 10 p.m. Saturdays, 7 to 10 a.m. ; 12 to 2, and 3 to 11 p.m.

Drawn from an entirely different class are the children who are engaged in street-trading, including the selling of newspapers, on their own account. Both the Reports, and those who have written on the subject, agree as to the serious moral and physical evil of this form of work (see BOY LABOUR).

Over 100,000 boys are engaged, while still at school, as errand-boys in connection with shops. They are chiefly employed by the smaller firms in the providing trades—principally by grocers and butchers. Their employment often engages them before, between, and after school-hours in the week, and during the whole of Saturday. They are often severely overworked. The committee had much evidence of serious injuries to children from

carrying excessive weights. Several instances of overwork are given. The Return of 1899 mentions a boy of eleven, in Standard III, working as grocer's errand-boy, for 1s. 6d. a week, daily, from 8 to 9 a.m., 12 to 1.30 and 5 to 8 p.m., and on Saturdays from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m. Many of the boys are employed on Saturdays from 8 in the morning until close on midnight.

The children employed out of school hours are not necessarily only the children of necessitous parents. Such employment has grown into a system in town and country alike.

The evils of the system are obvious: (1) Physical development is dwarfed by overwork, especially that connected with burden-bearing; (2) the children are robbed of all opportunity of natural recreation; (3) their education suffers in consequence of overstrain, and the lack of alert attention. "The effort to keep awake," wrote a teacher, "is truly painful, both to child and teacher. . . . The children come in a heated and confused state, so that attention to lessons is weak." (4) In some forms of child-labour there is moral danger: in the case of street-trading children especially, in the case also, as witnesses testified, of boys employed in connection with barbers' shops, who also suffer in health through long confinement in stuffy rooms.

Legislation and Reform. The recommendations of the Inter-Departmental Committee resulted in the passing of the Employment of Children Act, 1903. It is, for the most part, a permissive measure, (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT) working through bye-laws framed and administered by local authorities, but it contains, in addition, certain absolute provisions governing child-labour as a whole. Its provisions may be thus summarised: 1. Any local authority may frame bye-laws prescribing for all children

(i.e., persons under the age of fourteen), or for boys and girls under that age separately, the hours between which, and the number of daily and weekly hours beyond which, employment in all occupations, or in any specified occupation, is illegal; and prohibiting absolutely, or permitting conditionally, the employment of children in any specified occupation. 2. The local authority may regulate street-trading by persons under the age of sixteen, making permission to trade dependent upon specified conditions as to age, sex, and otherwise, or subject to the holding of a licence. It is provided that the local authority shall have special regard to the "desirability of preventing the employment of girls under sixteen in streets or public places." 3. No child shall be employed between the hours of nine in the evening and six in the morning. (The local authority may, however, modify these hours.) 4. No child under eleven is to be employed in street trading. 5. No child employed half-time under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901 (*q.v.*), shall also be employed in other occupations. 6. A child shall not be employed to lift, carry, or move anything so heavy as to be likely to cause injury; or employed in any occupation likely to be injurious to life, limb, health, or education, regard being had to his physical condition.

The Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, makes it penal to procure or allow a boy under fourteen, or a girl under sixteen, to beg (see BEGGING), or procure alms, whether under the pretence of singing, playing, performing, offering anything for sale, or otherwise, or to be in any street, or licensed premises (other than those licensed for public performance) for the above purposes, between nine in the morning and six

in the evening (see also CHILDREN'S CHARTER). The same Act forbids the employment of any child under the age of sixteen as acrobat, contortionist, circus performer, or for any exhibition or performance of a dangerous character, or to be trained for such, without a licence from a petty sessional court, which may be granted (on the satisfaction of the court that the child is fitted for the purpose) in respect of children over ten.

The Committee on the Amendment of the Employment of Children Act, which sat during 1910, recommended the total abolition of street-trading by children (Parliamentary Paper, Cd. 5229).

2. *Half-Time Labour.* "Half-Time" is the name given to the system under which children may, at the age of twelve (in agricultural districts, and for purposes of agriculture, at the age of eleven), obtain partial exemption from school for purposes of labour. The Inter-Departmental Committee on Partial Exemption reported fully on the question in 1909 (Cd. 4791). The following particulars are, for the most part, a summary of their report. The system is chiefly used in the cotton mills of Lancashire, in the worsted spinning and weaving industry in Yorkshire, and elsewhere (though sparingly) for agriculture. The number of partial exemption scholars in the year 1907-8 was roughly 84,298. It is to be noted that in districts where half-time is in vogue for purposes of spinning and weaving, it is also used for miscellaneous occupations, such as that of shop errand-boys. Elsewhere, it is little used exclusively for such occupations. In the cotton mills of Lancashire the half-timer is employed, either as "little piecer" or "doffer" in the spinning room, piecing together the broken ends of thread, or replacing the big bobbins that have become

empty; as "tenter" in the weaving shed, or "knotter" at the knotting bench. In the weaving shed the threads, made in the spinning-room, are woven, by looms, into cloth. The tenter's business is to see that none of the threads of the "warp" (the threads running the length of the cloth) break. The "knotters" at the knotting benches tie knots in the fringes of towels, table-cloths, and quilts.

The evils of the half-time system are manifest in the education, character, and physique of the children: 1. Teachers complain that the attention of the children is divided between mill and school, and that the children, being tired and sleepy, fail to win the best fruits of their schooling. The whole organisation of the school, too, suffers through the irregularity of the half-timer; and the consequent disorganisation reacts on the education of the full-time scholars. 2. In many cases a coarsening of the children sets in as a result of their associations while at work. 3. Statistical investigations have proved that the weight and chest measurement, and sometimes the height, of the half-time children are less than those of the full-time scholars in the same place and of the same age. When one remembers that the temperature of the spinning rooms is 90° F. in winter and 100° F. in summer, and that the atmosphere is constantly humid, this is not to be wondered at. It is possible in a half-time school to pick out the half-time scholars by reason of their inferior physique and their extreme pallor.

The system has been defended on the ground of: (1) Industrial training; (2) the poverty of parents. But the Inter-Departmental Committee, after careful investigation, dismiss both these pleas as untenable. (1) In agriculture half-time

labour is useless as a training for the children, and of little advantage to the farmers. Though the opinions of employers in the textile trades differ widely, that half-time labour is unnecessary as training, and of questionable economic value, is proved by the fact that in many cases it has been voluntarily abolished by the management of mills; and that in other cases the management have expressed their wish for its discontinuance. The strongest defence of the half-time system as a method of training came from Bradford (Yorks); but the Committee discovered that in the case of that town most of the boys were subsequently ousted by girls and women, and that the system was calculated to create casual and unskilled male labour, and to increase the number of the unemployed. The Committee, therefore, "feel compelled to doubt whether there is anything in the processes of cotton and worsted spinning and weaving which differentiates them so completely from other industries as to make it essential to have children of twelve to commence labour."

(2) The plea of poverty is no better supported. "The employment of half-timers bears no relation to the poverty statistics. There is even a tendency for half-time to increase as poverty decreases." In fact, the chief difficulty in the way of the abolition of this system is the stubborn conservatism of the mill operatives themselves. They find it hard to realise the evils of a system by which they themselves began their work; and in this particular the local boast that "what Lancashire thinks to-day, England thinks to-morrow," must be entirely reversed.

As a result of their investigations, the Inter-Departmental Committee recommend: (1) The entire discontinuance of half-time labour;

(2) the abolition of total exemption under the age of thirteen, and of the attendance certificate for total exemption; (3) the granting of total exemption at the age of thirteen, only for purposes of beneficial or necessary employment, the ordinary condition of such exemption being attendance at a continuation class; (4) the regulation of all matters connected with the education of children, whether employed in factories or not, under the Education Acts.

The adoption of these recommendations, and the amendment of the Employment of Children Act, in such a way as effectively to control the whole of child labour would seem to be only a matter of time. Public opinion is clearly ripe for a further step in the long series of enactments that have led to the partial emancipation of the child-worker.

Child Study Society.—This Society is a central society uniting local Child Study Societies, which now exist at Birmingham, Cheltenham, Dundee, Edinburgh, Exeter, Halifax, Liverpool, London, Manchester and West Kent, and laying down the conditions on which similar local societies may be affiliated to those already mentioned. The objects of this Society are "the scientific study of the mental and physical condition of children and of educational methods with a view to gaining greater insight into child-nature and securing more sympathetic and scientific methods of training the young." The local societies carry out these objects by awakening interest in the systematic observation of children among parents, doctors, and teachers; by scientific inquiry and research especially in connection with the education and environment of school children. Publications, lectures, meetings, conferences and the like help to

maintain and develop interest in Child Study. The society also promotes special training for teachers, including any who have to teach abnormal children. It co-operates in obtaining and guiding legislation and in aiding philanthropic efforts for promoting the welfare of children, and keeps in touch with similar societies in the Colonies and Foreign Countries. *Child Study*, the journal of the society, is issued quarterly. The society also possesses a valuable collection of books dealing with Child Study. The address of the London Society is 90, Buckingham Palace Road, S.W.

Children in Factories.—(See CHILD LABOUR, FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN, FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901, and WAGE-EARNING CHILDREN COMMITTEE.)

Children under the Poor Law.—(See also STATE CHILDREN'S ASSOCIATION.) Public and private effort has not been wanting during the last fifty years to deal with the child of the State, as well as the child living with his parents, and for one reason or another necessitous. Nor is this surprising, when it is considered that nearly 70,000 children in England are at this moment left to the care of the guardians (*q.v.*), either orphans or deserted, or children whose parents are maintained in the workhouse (*q.v.*). It is the object of this article to indicate briefly some of the methods that have been adopted to deal with these children. Various experiments have been made in different parts of the country, and various policies sanctioned by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*)—none without their faults, and none without their good points. If now people are realising that the success of a system depends more upon its administration than its theory on paper, then it is well that these

varying schemes should continue, and that there should be no uniform system for the whole country. At the outset, it should be made quite clear that it rests almost entirely with the officers concerned whether these children grow up into good citizens, likely to be self-supporting, or not; and, that if the best is to be done with the child of the guardians, the best of men and women, who have been thoroughly trained, must be procured, no matter what system in any particular union is adopted.

Until the middle of the nineteenth century the Poor Law child was maintained in the workhouse. He was not educated. To all intents he was a prisoner, for he never saw the outside of the walls of the workhouse, which was his home. He was only allowed to speak at certain times, and the discipline, amounting almost to cruelty, and exercised in every way, was of the strictest. Little wonder, then, that he never developed. He grew up dull-witted and void of all hope, too often to spend and end his days in the "House." He accepted this as his lot in life, and expected nothing else.

The Poor Law Reform Act of 1834 brought the whole state of the Poor Law before the public, but the problem of the child was left untouched. It was not for another ten years that the Poor Law Amendment Act was passed, which gave authority for the establishment of "District Schools" for the separation of juvenile from adult inmates, with powers of amalgamation as regards children of different parishes. This Act, however, was permissive and not compulsory (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT), and but little was done.

In 1861 the Royal Commission on Elementary Education reported, and called attention to the condition of children maintained in the workhouses (*q.v.*) and their lack of

education. This was followed in 1864 by a Select Committee on Poor Relief, which recommended that children should be dealt with entirely apart from adults, and advocated that the whole of the country should be covered with District Schools, containing about 1,000 children in each. For this purpose parishes might amalgamate. The children were to be maintained and educated in these schools, and were to be discharged, the boys on attaining the age of fourteen to sixteen, the girls sixteen to eighteen. Many such schools then sprang into existence, some still flourishing, others defunct; and so was instituted the system of what is now called the Block or Barrack School. These schools have been subject to much harsh criticism, and, perhaps, have had no greater opponent than Mrs. Barnett, the wife of the late Warden of Toynbee, though now public opinion seems rather to be tending in their favour again.

In 1896 a Departmental Committee was instructed to report on the condition of the Metropolitan Poor Law Schools. That Committee pointed out the advantages of the District School system, notably the separation of the children from the adults; but it also came to the conclusion that this very advantage, arrived at by means of large institutions, was in itself the parent of many disadvantages. Notably that the congregating of so many children of the same class led to an institutional manner, and possibly permanently stamped the children. What they describe as "mental dullness," they considered due to the same cause. On medical grounds, the risks of infection were largely increased. In their conclusion they recommended that no more such large schools should be built, and in effect cast their ban upon what

they describe as a "beneficent measure."

While all this was going on, other schemes were being started. The "Cottage Home" and "Boarding Out" (*q.v.*) systems were being tried here and there, and with some measure of success.

The Education Act of 1870 affected Poor Law children to this extent, that in certain unions the guardians took advantage of the free education, and sent their children to the elementary school. This policy has since widely developed, and now over 50 per cent. of Poor Law children attend the ordinary elementary schools (*q.v.*).

To-day Poor Law children are being maintained in one of nine or ten different ways. These roughly fall into two divisions:—

1. *Institutions provided by the Guardians*: (a) workhouses; (b) infirmaries; (c) separate establishments (District and Separate Schools, Cottage Homes, Scattered Homes).

2. *Institutions not provided by the Guardians*: (a) Certified institutions for the blind (*q.v.*), deaf and dumb (*q.v.*), epileptic (*q.v.*), victims of ringworm and convalescent; (b) training ships; (c) industrial homes and schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS); (d) boarded out (within the Union, outside the Union). Out of about 70,000 children thus maintained nearly 15,000 are still inmates of the ordinary workhouse. In nearly all these cases the unions in question are country unions. Such a state of things is obviously bad; the children are part and parcel of the workhouse, and are conscious of it. Even though they may be sent to a school outside the workhouse walls, they march there together hand-in-hand, dressed in what is known to be workhouse clothing, and do not mix with the other children. The

state of some of these children is but little in advance of what it was fifty years ago, and they are fit as adults for little else than the simplest form of unskilled and agricultural labour. There are no statistics to show how many return as adults to the workhouses or county asylums, but probably the number is large. It is, however, evidently the duty of all who care for the welfare of children to do their utmost to put an end to this system of maintaining pauper children in the workhouse. Much can be said for and against all the other methods of dealing with these children of the State; but no one who knows, has a word to say for the system which for some years identifies them with the adult workhouse.

It will be necessary, having mentioned the different systems under which Poor Law children are now dealt with, to give a somewhat fuller account of some of these. The difference between a District School and a Separate School is simply that, in the former case, two or more unions have amalgamated for the purpose of dealing with their children: in the latter, one union has its own block school. One of the best instances of a District School is the Kensington and Chelsea School at Banstead; while examples of the Separate School are to be found at Norwood, the Lambeth Parish Schools, or at Leavesden, the St. Pancras Schools.

The Banstead Schools accommodate some 600 children between the ages of four and sixteen. The boys and girls live in a sort of model village, about twenty in a cottage. The village, surrounded by a big enclosure, has its own school, chapel, technical workshops, hall, and hospital. In charge of their various departments, it has its own chaplain, schoolmasters, doctor, and dentist, while over all is the

superintendent of the whole colony. Each cottage is in charge of a man and his wife. The man is employed during the day in the village, as tailoring instructor, boot-making instructor, plumber, or carpenter, and so on. The wife is the foster-mother, and, in addition to the responsibility which her cottage entails, teaches the girls sewing, laundry work, and other things useful as a training for domestic service. Supervision is direct and on the spot. Though this system is expensive, it is probably better than any other, with the exception of a really effective system of Boarding Out (*q.v.*), under an efficient Boarding-out Committee. The children are not, as it has been suggested, all of one type. They are allowed a great deal of freedom; and results prove the case. The Banstead children become excellent men and women. This system necessarily means that children do not come in contact with ready cash, nor do they become familiar with buying things needed for their daily existence. It has been said, therefore, that such children are not taught the value of money, nor the price of articles for domestic use, and that when they go out into the world they suffer since they are at this loss. But it is a question whether the average elementary school child is really much better informed in this way than the district school child; while who knows but that there may even be a compensating gain to the latter, which the former had not? (see GUARDIANS, VOLUNTARY WORK OF).

The Separate School is worked on the same lines, the children attending either the ordinary elementary school for the purposes of education, or having their own school on the premises. The results in each vary with the efficiency and keenness of the superintendent or master. The Norwood Schools

accommodate 590 children, the Leavesden Schools 523. These schools are both excellent, and well worth a visit on the part of anyone interested.

The Cottage Home system is in use in six of the London unions, of which Woolwich (which accommodates 316 children) is one example. The name implies what the system is. The children live in cottages in a kind of model village, managed on much the same lines as the school at Banstead. Here, again, supervision can be adequate, and in some instances there is little difference between this system and that adopted by Kensington and Chelsea.

The Scattered Home system, however, is quite different. Camberwell has, perhaps, the best example in London of this system. Though in theory it is excellent, in practice it does not commend itself so much when carried out on a large scale, as it must necessarily be if adopted in any London union. The Guardians take houses scattered about the parish at a rent of about £35 a year, and place in charge of each a foster-mother, who has some thirteen or fourteen children under her care. Some houses are set apart entirely as boys' homes, others have both boys and girls; none are entirely girls' homes. The system is cheap. The children go to the ordinary London County Council (*q.v.*) schools, and it is said that they are being given a home life as natural as any circumstances can allow. The difficulty, however, of supervising thoroughly fifty such homes scattered over a large area is enormous; in fact, so great, that it is open to question whether the system in practice justifies its cheapness. After all, the future of the children is the chief object to study; and to spend more in dealing with the boys and girls when they are young may ensure that they will

not return as adults to be a charge on the rates. If model foster-mothers to the number required could be found, doubtless the system would work well. But sufficient model foster-mothers cannot be found, and no number of superintendents can thoroughly supervise so many houses, foster-mothers, and children scattered over a large district.

The other systems speak for themselves, with the exception of the Boarding Out (*q.v.*) plan. This is undoubtedly the best, if the Guardians can be sure of a really good Boarding-out Committee. The Local Government Board (*q.v.*) regulations, however, are so strict that only a very small proportion of the children chargeable to any union in London can be boarded out in the country. Camberwell has a good many children boarded out in the villages around Cambridge, and the results are most satisfactory. The children, when they are of an age to go to work, are sent to places in the district in which they have been boarded. Consequently, in the majority of these cases, children from London, with no ties in London, are sent to the country, and remain in the country.

The cost per child varies very much with the system and with the guardians. The Cottage Home system is the most expensive. Each child (according to a return in 1909) in the Stepney Union costs 25s. 2d. per week; in Poplar, 19s. 5d. a week; in Woolwich, 17s. 9d. a week; and in Greenwich, 17s. 4d. a week. These unions all employ the Cottage Home system. District and Separate Schools are less expensive. At Banstead (Kensington and Chelsea) the cost is only 14s. 6d. a week, a child; at Leavesden (St. Pancras), 14s. 11d.; at Norwood (Lambeth), 11s. 5d. These charges include establishment charges, loans

and interest on loans, and in certain cases the cost of education. With the Scattered Home system, which, of course, bears none of the expense of education, the cost of each child chargeable to Camberwell drops to 8s. 8d. a week. But with this system there are practically no male officers, and there is no expense of technical training, nor, as a rule, are children kept in the homes after they have reached the age at which they may go out to work.

The systems for dealing with Poor Law children which centralise, and have their children, so to speak, under one roof, can do much with the corporate life of the place that is impossible in unions in which the Scattered Home system is adopted. Nearly all the District and Separate Schools have full brass bands, with every instrument played by boys under the age of fourteen. Apart from the discipline and training involved by the very existence of a band, nor to speak of the pleasure given to others, the school bands have made excellent recruiting grounds for the Army bands and the Royal Naval School of Music at Eastney. Organised games, swimming, and gymnasium can take place for both boys and girls. But, perhaps, most important of all is the fact, that with all the children together, it is possible to develop a first-rate system of technical and manual training, so that boys may be discharged to be apprenticed to some trade or other, and at the same time have a decided advantage over the ordinary school child, because of the training they have received in the Poor Law school. Whether this is right from a moral point of view, or whether even it is wise to give such children better chances than those have whose parents have just managed to avoid "coming on the rates," is a question outside the scope of this article.

The problem of education in Poor

Law schools is by no means easy to solve. The issues are many, and not too clearly defined. In July, 1908, the Board of Education (*q.v.*) published a report by Mr. J. Tillard and Miss M. B. Syngé upon educational work in Poor Law schools, the conclusions of which may be of interest. At any rate, they point out some of the difficulties of the situation, and since they so nearly concern the welfare of the children, it is worth while to note them. They then recommended :—

(a) That in view of the isolation and want of freshness caused by the conditions of the work, Poor Law teachers should be placed under exactly the same conditions as public elementary school teachers.

(b) That the present system of dual control (*i.e.*, the Board of Education and the Local Government Board) produces serious obstacles to proper administration.

(c) That industrial training should be more systematic.

(d) That the local education authorities (*q.v.*) should have some voice in the control of the school.

In 1908 also the Local Government Board issued an important volume known as Dr. Macnamara's Report. It deals entirely with the children mentioned up to the present in these articles, and is interesting inasmuch as, through it, the Local Government Board once more gives its blessing to the District and Separate School system, which was becoming discredited in many quarters. In 1910 the Board issued to boards of guardians a circular letter dealing with the children under the Poor Law.

There are two classes of children on the rates, hitherto not mentioned, both very difficult, and each presenting very special problems. The first is made up of those children who are, with their parents, continually coming in and going out of the workhouse (see INS AND

OUTS). The second is composed of a very large class of children in receipt of relief in their own homes, chiefly those whose fathers are dead, and who are provided for by the Guardians in their mother's home.

The difficulty with the "In and Out" child is that he cannot come under continuous treatment. When his parents go into the workhouse, he goes into the receiving ward of the children's department, and, perhaps, before he has been transferred to the schools, after a period of two weeks' quarantine in every case, the parents have taken their discharge and their child, only to return again in a few days' time and repeat the process. The only solution would seem to be, to extend the powers which the Guardians have of absolute control and adoption, so as to include this class of child; and at the risk of encouraging unworthy parents, to think first of the future welfare of the child.

The number of children residing with parents or other relations in receipt of relief is still by far the largest class of children with which the Poor Law has to deal—and in many ways the most difficult. Guardians are apt to shirk entirely the responsibility which this class involves, and often make a weekly allowance of 2s. or 1s. 6d. a child, and do no more, other than the periodic visit of the relieving officer (*q.v.*) to the house. In other words, while every care is taken, and vast sums spent upon the children who actually come into the institutions belonging to the parish, practically nothing is done, and the minimum spent, upon those who remain outside in receipt of a weekly subsidy. In consequence, many of these are being relieved when the conditions of their home and circumstances warrant only instant removal to an institution; while, on the other hand, others are struggling to live

upon an inadequate pittance, and, in consequence, are failing to develop properly and to do their best. Relief is often so inadequate in these cases that in the council schools these children are being fed by the Children's Care Committees (*q.v.*) as necessitous children, under the Education (Provision of Meals) Act (see FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN). This want of care and lack of supervision is carried out systematically. The child in the institution will be apprenticed or sent to domestic service after a period of training; the child on outdoor relief (*q.v.*) will be told, on reaching the age of fourteen, that the relief will be continued for a month and that he must find employment for himself. Later still, the institution child in London will be referred to the Association for Befriending Boys (*q.v.*), or to the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants (*q.v.*), both of which societies will keep in touch with him or her by means of a voluntary staff of visitors till he or she is twenty-one years old; the out-relief child is lost sight of at once, till perhaps he appears again as an adult seeking an admission order for the workhouse. One suggestion for dealing with this problem is to form in each parish voluntary committees of ladies and gentlemen, who will undertake to act towards these children in exactly the same way as the Boarding-out (*q.v.*) Committees act to the children in their charge. They will get to know the children and their homes, and will report quarterly to the Guardians as fully as possible. In certain cases they will recommend that relief should cease, and that the children should be admitted to the homes or schools; in others, that the amount of relief given should be increased to enable the mother to stay at home, or decreased to make her go to work.

It is essential that each case should be dealt with on its merits, and that there should not be a hard and fast rule for all alike. There should be the fullest co-operation between the officers of the Board and the voluntary committee. The visitors would not give any material assistance without the knowledge of the relieving officer, and the relieving officer should in every case report to the Guardians if relief is so given. By means of such a scheme as this, it should be possible, without any additional cost of administration, to attempt to do something for these out-relief children which will help them materially.

The problem of the Poor Law child is one of the most important with which a Guardian must deal; and it is one which must appeal in a special way, from the very fact that the children are in this condition through no fault whatever of their own. It is encouraging to see what excellent results have been obtained already from the efforts made on their behalf. It remains now to develop on right lines what has been experimental in the past, and to invite whole-heartedly those who are interested in child life to help the Guardians of the Poor to deal with this most interesting and pressing problem, the Poor Law child.

Children's Care Committees.—(See also CLEANSING OF, DISEASES OF, SPECTACLES FOR, and TEETH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN; HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, SCHOOL CLINICS, and SCHOOL DOCTORS.) The first School Care Committee in connection with a provided elementary school was that started by Miss Margaret Frere, in Great Tower Street School, in 1897. In 1896 "Relief Sub-committees" had been formed by the managers in a number of necessitous schools for the sole purpose of providing food and clothing. It was the

translation of these committees into bodies of wider aim, such as Miss Frere had indicated, that led to the formation of the Children's Care Committees in London in July, 1907, when the London County Council (*q.v.*), acting through the Education Committee, became responsible for the feeding of necessitous children under the Education (Provision) of Meals Act, 1906. Their operations were still mainly confined to making arrangements for the supply of food and the selection of necessitous children (see FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN). In April, 1909, the L.C.C. decided that these bodies should no longer be merely "Canteen Committees," but that they should develop into effective *Care Committees*, interesting themselves in the general welfare of the children; and in co-operation with parents, teachers, and all existing agencies befriending them in every possible way. In addition to the duties arising out of the provision of meals and the selection of necessitous children, the Care Committees will assist in seeing that parents obtain for their children any medical treatment revealed necessary by the school inspecting doctor (see "FOLLOWING UP" and MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN); they will help to form boot clubs, provident and recreative clubs; they will try to secure that each child leaving school enters suitable employment offering prospects for the future, and that the child keeps in touch with some adviser and friend (see BOY LABOUR). A separate committee is now appointed for each public elementary school in London. The committee is reconstituted annually, and usually consists of about nine persons. Of these, three are, when possible, school managers; the rest are people with local knowledge and interests, such as social

workers, Church workers, members of friendly societies (*q.v.*), and representatives of the Invalid Children's Aid Association (*q.v.*), the Children's Country Holiday Fund (*q.v.*), the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*), the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants (*q.v.*), and kindred agencies. Head teachers are invited to be present at the meetings of the committee, and to assist with their knowledge of the children. Matters affecting general local policy are discussed by the Local Associations of Children's Care Committees, formed from representatives of each group of Care Committees. Questions affecting the whole area of the London County Council are considered by the Children's Care Central Sub-Committee of the Education Committee of the London County Council. Similar or less elaborate schemes have been and are being established in other parts of the country.

Children's Charter.—(See also RESCUE WORK, IMMORALITY AMONGST CHILDREN.) In 1908 the whole law relating to the protection of children and young persons, reformatory and industrial schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS), and juvenile offenders (*q.v.*) was consolidated in one Act of Parliament, which has been called the Children's Charter or Children Act. The subject of the first part is infant life protection (*q.v.*). The second deals with the various forms of cruelty to children (*q.v.*) and the punishment of the offenders. Part III is devoted to juvenile smoking (*q.v.*). The reformatory and industrial schools are provided for in Part IV, which contains the law in regard to their certification and inspection, the duties and powers of managers, and the procedure to be followed in

sending children to them. The various points in reference to the juvenile offenders themselves are contained in Part V. A number of miscellaneous provisions are included in the sixth, the last, part. *Inter alia*, they deal with the appearance of children in court (see CHILDREN'S COURTS); the prohibition of the purchase of old metals from persons under sixteen, and the taking of pawns from children under fourteen; the punishment of vagrants (*q.v.*), who prevent children wandering with them from receiving education (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW); the supply of intoxicating liquor (see PUBLIC HOUSES) to children and their presence on licensed premises; the safety of children at entertainments (see CHILD LABOUR) and the cleansing of school children (*q.v.*).

Children's Country Holidays Fund.—This Fund, which has now been in existence for over twenty-five years, exists to provide a fortnight's holiday each summer for poor children in London, who would not otherwise go into the country. In 1910 over 43,000 children were dealt with in this way from every district in London. The Fund claims to do real constructive work, both as regards education and the setting up of the children in health. Its organisation consists of no less than sixty-two local committees in London; and correspondents in the villages in which the children are boarded out. It is the duty of the London Committees to receive applications from children, to assess the amount the parents should pay, and to collect this by means of weekly instalments from the children at school. Care is taken that every child sent is perfectly clean, and comes from a home entirely free from infection. The duty of the country correspondents is to arrange with suitable cottagers for

the reception of the children, and generally to supervise them during their stay in the country. Cottagers are paid 5s. a week for each child for board and lodging. The railway companies assist the Fund by granting the children return tickets to any station for one-half of the single fare. In spite of the large number of children who benefit by the Fund, only a small proportion of those in London who really need the holiday can go. The Central Committee asks for largely increased support. (See also SCHOOL JOURNEYS.)

Children's Courts.—(See also ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE and JUVENILE OFFENDERS.) The first Children's Court in England was opened in Birmingham in April, 1905, and was followed shortly after by the Manchester Court and a few others. In each case the magistrates with the approval of the Home Office (*q.v.*) inaugurated the reform independently without waiting for an alteration in the law which should make it universal and compulsory; but in 1908 it was enacted by the Children Act (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), Section 112 (1) that:—

"A court of summary jurisdiction when hearing charges against children or young persons, or when hearing applications for orders or licences relating to a child or young person, at which the attendance of the child or young person is required, shall, unless the child or young person is charged jointly with any other person not being a child or young person, sit either in a different building or room from that in which the ordinary sittings of the court are held, or on different days or at different times from those at which the ordinary sittings are held, and provision shall be made for preventing children and young persons, whilst being conveyed to or from court or whilst waiting before or after their attendance in court, from associating with

adults charged with any offence other than an offence with which the child or young person is jointly charged.

"(2) At any such hearing no person other than the members and officers of the court, and the parties to the case, their solicitors and counsel, and other persons directly concerned in the case shall, except by leave of the court, be allowed to attend."

The object with which such courts were established was, of course, the preservation of the children from the sordid and contaminating influences of the ordinary police court, where the impressions received were obviously often bad when not of the vilest, and to a shy child the proceedings were terrifying and unintelligible. The Children Act, at the same time, forbade the presence in an ordinary court of any child under sixteen, other than an infant in arms, unless required as a witness, in which case, should the proceedings concern offences against morality, the court may be cleared whilst evidence is taken.

When a child is charged with an offence, it is required, when practicable, that his parent or guardian shall attend the court with him. The period between arrest and the hearing of the case is spent in a remand home (*q.v.*). In large cities some of the homes or refuges which receive destitute children commonly undertake the function, whilst in country districts a workhouse is often the place of custody—this, whether in town or country, being a most undesirable arrangement.

The arrangements of Children's Courts are somewhat varied; but they are usually held in board-rooms, where the magistrate and other official's sit round a table and the culprit stands close to the magistrate. When held

in the ordinary court house at a separate sitting, the offenders are not placed in the dock. They are introduced to the building by a separate door to that used by adults, and to the court one by one, so that they hear nothing of each other's cases. Care is also taken to prevent intercourse in the waiting-rooms between children charged with trivial offences against bye-laws and those guilty of serious misdemeanours.

While separate rooms are provided for holding Children's Courts, it is unfortunate that in nearly every instance they are actually contiguous to the adult police court, and undoubtedly the impression is left on the children's minds that they have been at the police court. It would be far better if such courts were held in buildings entirely separate from the police courts.

In the United Kingdom the magistrates sitting in Children's Courts frequently do so *in rota* from the borough or city roll of magistrates, a system which does not secure the happiest results. Special children's magistrates, as appointed in many American cities, are needed, for it can hardly be expected that a magistrate dealing with large numbers of ordinary cases can readily adjust his mind to examine the small details and altogether different emotions which give rise to the crimes of childhood, or that he should be as conversant with the best means of dealing with each individual case as a man who devotes himself especially to the cause of juveniles.

Children's Happy Evenings Association.—(See also EVENING PLAY CENTRES and GUILDS OF PLAY.) This Association was founded in 1889 to organise recreation and amusements for children during winter evenings. Its object is to gather into council schools all children of school-age who, through

lack of space in their homes, are compelled to seek the streets as their only available playground. The moral and physical evils of the streets in thickly populated districts in London and the large towns are a continual menace to such children. Drunkenness, street-fighting, and various similar demoralising influences, together with the continual exposure to damp and cold on dark winter evenings, undoubtedly do serious injury to children who frequent the streets. And where the parents keep their children at home, very often the smallness of the home and the size of the family make healthy play almost impossible. While the children are thus often without any place of recreation, the schools to which they go in the day-time stand empty and unused. The Association has, therefore, obtained permission from the L.C.C. to use council schools as places in which to organise games, amusements, and competitions in toy-making, etc. Some games are "quiet"; but for those who prefer it, "noisy rooms" are provided, in which girls are taught old English dances, and boys physical drill and boxing. The usual time for the "evenings" is from 5.30 to 7.30 on all week-day evenings except Saturday. Friends of the Association help the work by gifts of dolls, Christmas trees, illustrated papers, books, games, toys, Christmas cards and scraps, picture post cards, and outline drawings. Others help by organising treats for the children. The work is carried out by local branches under the control of, and supported by, the Central Association. On the side of physical training and development, an Inter-Branch Physical Competition has done much to stimulate the keenness of workers and children. The movement is also spreading in the large provincial towns, and affiliated associations now exist at

Halifax, Manchester, Middlesbrough, Midhurst, Oxford, and Plymouth. The social worker who desires to start a branch or to help in the work of a branch already started should apply to the Hon. Secretary of the Association, Mrs. Bland-Sutton (47, Brook Street, Grosvenor Square, S.W.), who will gladly give further information on the subject.

Children's Magistrates. — (See CHILDREN'S COURTS.)

Children's Rescue Homes. — (See RESCUE WORK.)

"Children's Trades." — (See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Chimney Sweep. — A master sweep employing assistants is required to have a certificate, obtainable at the cost of 2s. 6d. from the chief officer of the police in the district where he is resident. The certificate is granted for a year from its date. No person under the age of twenty-one may ascend or descend a chimney. A chimney sweeper may not bring a young person under sixteen to a place where he is going to sweep a chimney. He may not ring a bell, or use any noisy instrument, or knock at the door of any house, in order to solicit custom. The Act containing these provisions does not forbid the use of his familiar cry as he passes through the street, but nevertheless it may be an offence under the bye-laws of the local authority as to street noises.

Cholera. — (See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Christian Social Service Union. — (See NATIONAL UNION FOR CHRISTIAN SOCIAL SERVICE.)

Christian Social Union. — This is a Society of members of the Church of England, founded in 1889, for the practical study of social questions from the Christian point of view. The Bishop of Birmingham is president, and the Bishops of Winchester and Liverpool and the Revd. J. Carter are vice-presidents of the Union. There are sixty

branches throughout the country (e.g., at Birmingham, Bristol, Cheltenham, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Lincoln, London, Manchester, Newcastle, Northampton, Sheffield, etc., and in the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham). The General Secretary of the Union is W. Nalder Williams, Esq., Selwyn College, Cambridge.

Its primary purpose is the education of its own members in regard to their social and economic duties. Thus, a systematic plan of study is recommended each year by the Central Executive for the guidance of the branches, and papers are published from time to time on subjects of general interest. The *Economic Review* is published quarterly by the Oxford University branch. The Union is avowedly non-political, and includes Churchmen of almost every type, irrespective of their political or economic views. Members are only bound by the three general objects of the Union, viz., (1) To claim for the Christian law the ultimate authority to rule social practice; (2) to study in common how to apply the moral truths and principles of Christianity to the social and economic difficulties of the present time; and (3) to present Christ in practical life as the living Master and King, the enemy of wrong and selfishness, the power of righteousness and love.

The annual reports show that the educational work of the Union leads to practical results. For example, the members co-operate with the local guilds of help (*q.v.*) and sanitary and health associations (*q.v.*); others have helped to form housing companies for the provision of better dwellings for the poorer classes; and the Christian Social Union has always been active in promoting preferential dealing (*q.v.*) by means of "white lists." Special

courses of sermons and public lectures are arranged from time to time by the various branches, and a general meeting is held each year, visiting in turn the places where the Union has been organised.

Church Army.—(See also SALVATION ARMY.) The Rev. Wilson Carlisle founded the Church Army, in 1882, as an evangelistic organisation. The first Labour Home was opened in the winter of 1888-9. The Church Army was incorporated in 1892. The memorandum of association set forward, first, its aim "to win souls for Christ," and the means adopted; and, secondly, its social work "to establish, take over, conduct and carry on at such place or places in England, or elsewhere, as the committee may from time to time determine, labour homes, night shelters, and other refuges for the poor, and generally to promote the welfare of the poor and the relief of distress by combined social and spiritual agencies." The labour homes exist mainly for bad characters, but the applicant must be willing to work, for which he is paid wages. An extension of the labour home is the farm labour colony, where men may learn all that is necessary to become agricultural labourers. Associated with the same department of the Church Army's work is the emigration branch (see COLONISATION).

The object of the League of the Friends of the Poor is to bring rich and poor into personal touch and to endeavour to give such assistance to deserving families as permanently to improve their position, but that does not include the gift of money. Each "Friend" undertakes to visit one poor family, and endeavours to become to each member of it a "friend" in fact, as in name. One development of the League has been the Boys' Aid Department, which endeavours to get into touch with lads running about the streets, and

then to put them into communication with Church Lads' Brigade, Boy Scouts (see BOYS' BRIGADES), and similar organisations, at the same time endeavouring to secure proper employment for them instead of "blind-alley" occupations. Clubs and branches with corresponding aims are devoted to work among women and girls.

The Ladder League is another branch of a similar character, to provide friends for homeless and unemployed men. During the winter labour relief depôts are opened and relief is given in return for work. The Samaritan Office fulfils a similar function for clerks and others out of work.

The Church Army is officially recognised as a Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society (*q.v.*), and also provides probation officers (*q.v.*) under the Probation of Offenders Act, besides supporting homes for juvenile offenders (*q.v.*). Among the numerous other activities of the Church Army may be mentioned the old clothes department, from which the inmates of the various homes are supplied, at a small cost, and the printing press.

Church Lads' Brigades.—(See BOYS' BRIGADES and BOY SCOUTS.)

Church of England.—(See DIOCESAN SOCIAL SERVICE COMMITTEES.)

Church of England Incorporated Society for Providing Homes for Waifs and Strays.—(See WAIFS AND STRAYS and COLONISATION, CHILD.)

Church of England Women's Help Society.—(See also GIRL'S FRIENDLY SOCIETY.) The Church of England Women's Help Society was started, in 1879, at Colchester, by Mrs. Papillon, to promote a more definitely Christian life, and to band together the factory girls, with whom she had so great an influence. From that small beginning has sprung a great tree, spreading

all over England, and having branches abroad.

In these days of many guilds and societies, the C.E.W.H.S. has its own particular use, especially in a parish where nothing else of this kind for women has been already started. Its distinctive features are :—

1. It is essentially a Church Society, for though those separated from the Church may join as associates, full members must be communicants of the Church of England, and it works entirely and only under the direction of the parochial clergy, by whom the workers are approved.

2. It bands together women of all classes, married or single, by means of a simple rule of life, and it is the acceptance of the cards and rule which constitutes the link between them.

3. Children can also be enrolled, and when they are older and become confirmed, they can take a step further in the rule, and always remain in the same Society. By this means the family life of the Society is not broken, and there is one common interest amongst its members.

The Society works both in town and country ; amongst those who work together in large numbers, such as mill girls and factory girls, helping to establish evening clubs, refreshment bars, and lodging-houses ; amongst mothers' meetings (*q.v.*), Bible classes, and classes for secular instruction ; amongst women in large business houses, and the lonely needlewomen and dress-makers, who often want a friend to give a little sympathy ; amongst field-workers and bondagers ; and amongst domestic servants.

But, above all, and through all, runs the rule of life, very simple at first, and gradually leading "onward and upward," till the member is a devout and regular

Communicant, this being the goal at which all Church work must aim, if it is to have any stability or true life in it.

This Society does not undertake rescue work (*q.v.*), nor are its members or associates ever taken from those who lead evil lives ; but supposing that past years do contain a stain, which has been repented of, and the feet are set, however painfully, to walk on the upward path, its doors are *not closed* against such a one, and she is helped "onward and upward," as befits a Society professing to work for that Church whose Head has said, that He would not break the bruised reed.

Church Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses' Benevolent Institution.

—(See also NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS and TEACHERS' PENSIONS.) The objects of the Institution are to provide the teachers of public elementary schools in England and Wales, or their widows and orphans, being members of the Church of England : (1) assistance in times of temporary affliction or misfortune ; (2) annuities in case of permanent disablement ; (3) assistance towards the maintenance and education of orphans ; and (4) aid in the purchase of immediate annuities. Temporary relief is granted, in time of long illness, towards the support of orphans, or in the form of loans under special circumstances. There is also a Provident Sick Fund in connection with the Institution. Local boards may be formed in districts where ten or more members reside, and through a committee have power to grant temporary relief. The most important part of the Institution's work is the granting of annuities to those who have worn themselves out in the service of the State.

Cigarette Holders, Manufacture of. — (See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Cinematograph Exhibitions.—(See also SOCIAL REFORM IN THE UNITED STATES.) Two dangers are involved in these exhibitions. Owing to a terrible catastrophe Parliament has legislated with a view to obviate the bodily danger arising from the risk of fire. Premises, in which apparatus with inflammable films is used for showing pictures, must be licensed by the local authorities (*q.v.*) in accordance with regulations made by the Home Secretary. It may be a condition of the licence that the premises shall not be opened on Sundays, Christmas Day, or Good Friday. The second danger is not so tangible but not less real to those who are concerned with the welfare of the children of the poorer classes. The exhibitions may not be definitely immoral, but they are frequently suggestive, and, at the best, little benefit can be derived from them. They merely give the children a taste for spending their time in pleasure, and are an inducement both to young and old to spend money which is badly needed for other purposes.

Circuses, Children Employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Civil Service for Females.—The work of a telephone operator is not to be commended to a girl unless she has failed to gain admission to other branches of the Civil Service, and then only if there is no doubt about her physical strength. Too much stress may be laid upon its disadvantages from a moral aspect, but it cannot be ignored that things may be said to girls and women through a telephone which the speaker would never dare to utter to their faces. The work of a female sorter, consisting of sorting and tabulating documents, requires a strong body and neat habits rather than a trained mind, though it is necessary to pass an examination, which consists of: Reading and

copying MS., writing, spelling, arithmetic (first four rules, simple and compound, including English weights and measures, reduction), and geography of the United Kingdom. The limits of age are fifteen and eighteen. The salary is 14s. to 30s. a week. Periods of service of not less than two full consecutive years, or more than five in another Civil Service occupation may be deducted from the actual age. Candidates must be at least 5 ft. in height. The general conditions in respect to the examination are the same as for male sorters (see CIVIL SERVICE FOR MALES), except that the fee for admission is 4s. The remuneration for female learners is not so good to begin with as for female sorters, but generally by the time they reach the age of eighteen or nineteen they are on an equality, and the prospects of the learner much better, and her status higher. In London the remuneration may rise to 40s. and in the provinces 36s. per week. The limits of age for the female learner are the same as for the sorter, and the principal difference in the examination is that she must be prepared to be examined in the geography of the world. The learner will have to write an essay, and in arithmetic she must offer the first four rules, simple and compound, including English and metrical weights and measures, reduction, vulgar fractions and decimals, excluding recurring decimals. The other conditions of appointment are the same as for the female sorters. The learner is employed in telegraph and counter work in the post offices. In 1910 a new class of appointment for girls in the Post Office was established under the description of "female typist and shorthand writer." The limits of age are eighteen and thirty. The salary is 18s. to 35s. a week. Deductions for periods spent in other forms of Civil Service may be made

in the same way as in the case of sorters and learners. Candidates must be at least 5 ft. in height. The subjects of examination are : Writing, spelling, English composition, copying MS., arithmetic (first four rules, simple and compound, including English weights and measures, and reduction), and type-writing. The entrance fee is only 1s. Any of the above-mentioned examinations may be passed by a girl who applies herself with diligence to the preparation in a secondary school (*q.v.*) to which she may have passed from an elementary school (*q.v.*). But it is not an uncommon thing for the strain of the work and the anxiety so to affect the health of the girl, that she is rejected in the examination by the Post Office doctor. Only the more capable of those girls whose education has been begun in the elementary school, and whose home surroundings are favourable to concentrated study, may reasonably expect to pass the examination for girl clerks (£42 to £48 for first three years), from which with rare exceptions, she proceeds to a women clerkship (£65 to £140), and so to the highest posts for women in the Post Office.

Civil Service for Males.—Care should be exercised in advising a boy to enter the lowest grades of the Civil Service in the capacity of messenger (see **BOY LABOUR**). Efforts are being made by the authorities to provide for the future careers of the lads, but it is necessary to arrange that plans are mapped out with a reasonable prospect of accomplishment not merely for a year or two, but until he has passed the age of twenty or twenty-one. The lad may safely be recommended to enter two classes in the Post Office : (1) The learner and (2) the sorter. Male learners must be between the ages of fifteen and eighteen. Entrance is obtained by examinations held in London and

other large centres. The examinations are held at irregular intervals. Announcements of the date are accompanied by a notification of the number of vacancies. All communications in respect to the examinations should be made with the Secretary of the Civil Service Commission, Burlington Gardens, London. Copies of the papers set at previous examinations may be obtained for a few pence from the King's printers. The examination is in English spelling (including writing and spelling), arithmetic (first four rules, simple and compound, including English and metrical weights and measures, reduction, vulgar fractions and decimals—excluding recurring decimals) and geography. The number of marks allowed to each subject is shown in the previous examination results obtainable with the copies of the papers. Candidates must be at least 5 ft. in height, and no officer will be retained in the service who does not attain the height of 5 ft. 4 in. before completing his nineteenth year. A fee of 5s. is payable before entering the examination.

The limits of age for the situation of male sorter are eighteen and twenty-one. Persons who have served in the Army or Navy may deduct from their actual age any time during which they have served. Persons who have served in the Militia, the Imperial Yeomanry, the Honourable Artillery Company, or the Territorial Force may deduct from their actual age any time spent on actual military service. Persons who have served for two full years in any situation to which they were admitted with the certificate of the Civil Service Commissioners may deduct from their actual age any time not exceeding five years which they may have spent in such service. The subjects of examination are the same as for the male learners. Candidates must be at least 5 ft.

4 in. The remarks above in reference to male learners' examination, including the amount of the fee, apply also to male sorters.

Admission to higher grades of the Civil Service is obtained by competitive examinations of a higher standard, which only the more brilliant scholars from the elementary schools may hope to pass with success.

Classification of Paupers.—The Report of the Poor Law Commission of 1832 recommended classification of paupers by institutions, but this recommendation was never supported by the Central Authority; and when new workhouses (*q.v.*) were built provision was made that they should be planned so as to include all classes of men and boys, women and girls. It became, indeed, abundantly clear that the Central Authority set aside the recommendation of classification by institutions and preferred a system of classification in institutions. The reasons that governed this policy seem to have been:—

(1) That as many new workhouses had to be built in various parts of the country, it was more economical to build one institution to accommodate all the indoor paupers than to build several for different classes.

(2) That they considered that, with good management and care, classification could be effectually carried out in the one building.

The Commissioners of 1909, however, reported strongly on the utter impossibility of classification under the present system; on the grave evils that were brought to their notice, and the crying need for drastic reform in this respect; and accordingly recommended, once again, that classification by institutions should be enforced, and that the area of administration should be enlarged so as to make this easy

and possible. In most existing workhouses it is impossible that any system of classification can be effectually carried out; and special attention was drawn to the evils arising from a lack of separation between respectable and dissolute women, and the association of children with adults, imbeciles, and epileptics (*q.v.*). Moreover, there should be specialised treatment for the aged and the able-bodied (*q.v.*), and the respectable and the worthless.

Article 98 of the General Consolidated Order arranges classification as follows:—

(1) Men infirm through age or any other cause.

(2) Able-bodied men and youths above fifteen years of age.

(3) Boys above the age of seven and under fifteen years.

(4) Women infirm through age or any other cause.

(5) Able-bodied women and girls above the age of fifteen.

(6) Girls above the age of seven years and under fifteen.

(7) Children under seven years.

Article 99 of the same Order provides that the above may be subdivided "with reference to the moral character or behaviour, or the previous habits of the inmates, or to such other grounds as may seem expedient."

Provision is also made that married couples who have attained the age of sixty years shall not be compelled to live apart from each other, though in practice it is found that husband and wife often prefer to live on different sides of the workhouse.

Generally speaking, therefore, there should be complete separation of the aged and infirm from the able-bodied; children should be housed in schools or homes without entering the workhouse; the sick should be separated from the strong and healthy; and able-bodied men,

able-bodied women, vagrants (*q.v.*), imbeciles, and epileptics should be housed in separate institutions, while these classes, as far as is practicable should be further subdivided with reference to their physical condition and their moral character.

Clay Pipes, Manufacture of.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES EXHIBITION.)

Cleanliness of Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Cleansing of School Children.—(See also HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, MEDICAL INSPECTION OF CHILDREN, and SCHOOL DOCTORS.) The cleansing of school children is a development of the Public Health Service through the extension of such Acts as the Public Health Act (*q.v.*) of 1875, and the Cleansing of Persons Act of 1897, but now the Education Authority, by the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), has the responsibility of selecting and cleansing children.

The cleansing scheme in London is applied as follows: The nurse visits a selected school and notes all children with unclean heads. She then gives the head teacher a "white card" for each child to take home, drawing the attention of the parents to the fact, and giving directions for cleansing. At the end of a week all cases not treated are separated from the other children in class, and a "red card" is delivered by the attendance officer, notifying the parent that if the condition is not remedied by the end of the week, the child will be excluded from school and the parent will be prosecuted. At the end of the second week the Superintendent of Nurses visits the school, excludes those children whose heads have not been cleansed, and forwards the names to the head office for prosecution by the divisional superintendent. About 13

per cent. of excluded cases are fined. When the nurse finds children whose clothes and bodies are so verminous as to be unfit for school, she excludes them and forwards the names to the head office. The names are then sent to the medical officer of health (*q.v.*), whose inspector delivers a card stating that the children can have a warm bath and have their clothes sterilised free of charge at certain specified times and places. Where this scheme has been in force for some time, the medical officers note a great improvement in the standard of cleanliness. (See also VERMIN.)

Clerical Work.—(See CIVIL SERVICE FOR FEMALES AND MALES and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Clinics.—(See SCHOOL CLINICS.)

Clock-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Closing Orders.—(See also HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, OVERCROWDING AND SMALL SLUMS.) Under the Housing Act, 1909, the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) shall, and any four ratepayers may, inform the local authority of any building which they consider so dangerous or injurious to health as to be unfit for human habitation (Sec. 31, Act of 1890), and upon receipt of a representation from the medical officer or any other officer of the authority, or information given, the local authority must make an order prohibiting the use of any dwelling-house which appears to them to be in such a state until they decide that it is rendered fit for human habitation.

This improvement in procedure is rendered necessary from the fact that out of dwellings inhabited by a population of 10,000,000, there were only 4,220 closing orders and 748 demolition orders in the seven years ended 1905, so that, at this rate, it would take about a century to get rid of the existing unhealthy

dwellings, even if no new ones were created in the meantime.

Before the Act of 1903 it was necessary to give notice to the owner or occupier of a house to abate the nuisance before applying for a closing order, and it was difficult to recover possession from the occupying tenants.

These difficulties have been removed; local magistrates no longer have authority to make the closing order or to extend the time (Act of 1909, Secs. 17 (2) and 21).

Clothing, Coal, and Blanket Clubs.

—Clothing, coal, and blanket clubs constitute an attempt to give an aim or direction to thrift (*q.v.*) in general, and, when dealing with those who have not fully grasped the principles of true economies, are sometimes useful for the time being in the formation of habits of thrift. There are, however, very distinct objections to such clubs, of which the chief is, perhaps, the bonus money nearly always associated with membership. This bonus implies money distributed without any consideration of individual needs; in itself a direct contravention of the principles of true charity (see CHARITABLE RELIEF). In theory such a method of giving money is indefensible, and in practice it often leads to the anomaly of those who need least receiving most. It involves a great strain on parish funds, and the money thus used might be far better expended in a variety of ways among the deserving aged or infirm.

Where coal, clothing, or blanket clubs are considered desirable—in the opinion of many a provident club or collecting savings bank is altogether a more excellent system of saving—only the trade discount allowed by the firm of tradesmen employed to supply the goods should be credited to depositors,

and no other benefit whatever should be attached to membership.

In places, however, where a good system of relief prevails and inquiries can be made into the merits of individual cases, it may sometimes be permissible for help to be given to deserving depositors in the form of the club payments being kept up for a time during stress of illness or other family misfortune likely to terminate in the resumption of responsibility within a reasonable period. But the aim of all thrift organisations must always be the maintenance of independence of character, and, therefore, as is above indicated, everything that in any way resembles a bribe to join, or a reward for payments made, should be rigidly excluded from all attempts to teach a reasonable and beneficial system of saving.

Clubs.—(See BOYS' CLUBS, CLOTHING, COAL, AND BLANKET CLUBS, GIRLS' CLUBS, GIRLS' CLUBS, NATIONAL ORGANISATION OF, MATERNITY CLUBS, SOCIAL INSTITUTES' UNION, WORKING MEN'S CLUB AND INSTITUTE UNION, and WORKING MEN'S CLUBS.)

Clubs, Registration of.—A club, whatever may be its purpose or constitution, requires registration if it comes within the following three conditions: (1) That it occupies premises (2) which are habitually used for the purpose of a club, and (3) in which intoxicating liquors are supplied to members or their guests. Registration is effected by the justices in accordance with the terms of the Licensing Act, 1910. The secretary must make a return to the clerk of the justices giving (*a*) the name and objects of the club; (*b*) its address; (*c*) his own name; (*d*) the number of members; (*e*) the rules of the club relating to (1) the election of members and the admission of temporary and honorary members and of guests; (2) the amount of

subscription and entrance fee, if any; (3) the cessation of membership; (4) the hours of opening and closing; and (5) the mode of altering the rules. The return must be made annually, and a fee of 5s. is payable on each occasion. It is contended that clubs are often an inducement to excessive drinking. Where a club is believed to be badly conducted, any person may make a complaint in writing to a court of summary jurisdiction, which may order the club to be struck off the register on any of the following grounds: (a) that the club has ceased to exist, or that the number of members is less than twenty-five; (b) that it is not conducted in good faith as a club, or that it is kept or habitually used for any unlawful purpose; (c) that there is frequent drunkenness on the club premises; (d) that illegal sales of intoxicating liquors have taken place; (e) that persons who are not members are habitually admitted merely for the purpose of obtaining intoxicating liquor; (f) that the club occupies premises in respect of which, within twelve months next preceding the formation of the club a justices' licence has been forfeited, or the renewal of a justice's licence has been refused, or in respect of which an order has been made that they shall not be used for the purposes of a club; (g) that persons are habitually admitted as members without an interval of at least forty-eight hours between their nomination and admission; or (h) that the supply of intoxicating liquor to the club is not under the control of the members or the committee appointed by the members.

Coach Construction.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Coal Clubs.—(See CLOTHING, COAL, AND BLANKET CLUBS.)

Coal Smoke Abatement Society.—(See SMOKE NUISANCE.)

Co-education.—The education

together of the two sexes is called co-education. Partly from necessity, owing to the distribution of the population, and partly from conviction as to the soundness of the underlying principles, the system has been adopted widely in the United States. In the United Kingdom the most important examples are schools under special conditions, which are beyond the reach of the sections of the population within the concern of the social worker. On the one hand, it is argued that the girl has a refining influence upon the boys, who in his turn imparts strengthening qualities lacking in her. On the other side, it is contended that the result is an effeminate boy or a masculine girl. Whatever may be the effect of co-education in schools with small classes and ample opportunity for the exercise of the personal influence of the teacher, the existing conditions in urban elementary schools cannot be regarded as favourable to its extension. In connection with this subject the social worker cannot leave out of consideration the sad increase of immorality among quite young children (see RESCUE WORK, IMMORALITY AMONGST CHILDREN).

Coffin Tassels.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Collecting Friendly Societies.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES and THRIFT.)

Collecting Savings Banks.—The wife of the labourer has a very small margin for saving and much temptation to spend the few pence she can spare. She has not, as a rule, sufficient force of character to collect these pence until they become shillings and then to make a journey to the Post Office in order to deposit them in the Post Office Savings Bank. She is used to the visits of the agent from her insurance company, and will gladly make regular

payments to the collector from a savings bank. Many districts, both in and out of London, have well organised collecting savings banks. The collector should visit regularly every Monday, collect payments into a money bag, enter the payment at each visit on to a card kept by the depositor, make a copy of this entry into a counterfoil book, which she will give up periodically to the treasurer together with the money collected.

It is a good plan to bank the money collected with the Post Office in the name of two trustees. The interest received is useful for working expenses. After years a balance accumulates due to the fact that depositors with very small deposits sometimes forget to withdraw them when they leave the district.

As soon as the depositor's savings amount to £1, she should be encouraged to withdraw it and redeposit in her own name in the Post Office Savings Bank.

Another method, and one which has the advantage that it is quite free from risk of loss to both organiser and depositor is that in which the collector gives postage stamps in return for pennies. The stamps are affixed to strips of paper provided by the Post Office for the purpose and retained by the depositor until twelve stamps are collected, when the strip is paid into her account at the Post Office Savings Bank.

The labour of collecting is, no doubt, great in proportion to the sum of money collected. The success of a bank must not be judged by the amount of money accumulated in it, but by the education in thrift (*q.v.*) which it affords and the opportunity it gives for friendly intercourse.

Some real effort should be made to educate the collectors in thrift, either by reading or lectures.

Above all they should be made to realise the aim of their work before they begin to collect. Their object is to encourage both wise saving and wise expenditure, and not merely to induce people to put money in the bank and keep it there.

They should be provided with notices about the friendly societies (*q.v.*), and provident dispensaries (*q.v.*). The collector is, perhaps, most useful to those who are too poor to accumulate savings at all, where the bank acts merely as a help to a more well considered expenditure. She should not be discouraged because consideration occasionally leads to expenditure on a feast or drinking bout. Money withdrawn at Christmas time is more often spent on warm clothing and boots, and does not necessarily indicate expenditure in excess.

Bank collecting may be regarded as one of the best introductions to social work. It has few pitfalls and affords a just view of the poorer classes. Most branches of social work are unsuitable for young and inexperienced women. As a rule, work has to suffer in order that they may learn. Quite young workers are used with success as bank collectors. The visitor offers such a simple service that she is well received and may readily become a pleasant acquaintance, whose visits are looked forward to, and in special cases a sisterly friend.

A collecting savings bank strengthens other social work in the district, by providing a regular visitor in every street, and often becomes the basis of more important work.

Collectors who have a natural taste for district visiting (*q.v.*) become good district visitors; where they are unable to do this work themselves they introduce the district visitor to new friends in the street. They may act as scouts for every good work in the district.

Relief committees and maternity

clubs (*q.v.*) should avoid overlapping by making use of the collecting bank whenever special payments are made by instalments.

College Missions.—(See SCHOOL AND COLLEGE MISSIONS.)

Colonies for the Feeble-minded. (See HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLEMINDED.)

Colonisation.—(See also AMERICA, AUSTRALIA, CANADA, SOUTH AFRICA, NEW ZEALAND, COLONISATION IN.) The social worker is sometimes inclined to turn away from this as from any true solution of the problem of unemployment (*q.v.*); and yet there is no doubt that many thousands of persons each year find a home, fair wages, and contentment in the great overseas states of the Empire.

The Central (Unemployed) Body of London has been sending 1,000 of the unemployed annually to Canada and Australia. The money for the passages is of the nature of a loan, and is sometimes returned. But the results are, on the whole, very satisfactory. There are some forty-seven private societies in the British Isles engaged in the work of colonisation—or of carrying the overplus of population from the congested heart to the ill-supplied limbs of the great possessions of the British Crown.

These societies are now represented by a Central Board, meeting fortnightly at the Royal Colonial Institute, Northumberland Avenue, which owes its existence to a conference of all voluntary workers in the cause of emigration, held in May, 1909, under the direction of the Royal Colonial Institute.

The Colonial Office supplies every quarter, (and oftener when necessary), valuable circulars giving the fullest information respecting each British State to which emigrants are invited. The details of wages, fares, cost of provisions and house-rent, together with

warnings of the various dangers confronting inexperienced girls and women are fully set forth by this unique authority. Once a year a volume is published of all the "Handbooks on the British Colonies," bound together and sold at the modest price of 2s. No volume or volumes published in Great or Greater Britain can give the social worker more reliable and fuller information on all questions of emigration work. At the end of this volume, and also published as a separate handbook is a full list of all British Emigration Societies. Workers can get the handbooks separately (at one penny each) or the volume by application to the Chief Clerk, Emigrants' Information Office, 31 Broadway, Westminster, S.W.

The differences in age, station, circumstances, and mental and physical condition, make advice as to emigration difficult, without some first-hand knowledge of the countries to which our people are to go. There are societies for all sorts and conditions and ages. Application for details may be most usefully made, either to the officials at the Emigration Office, as above, or to the Central Voluntary Agency at the Royal Colonial Institute. Societies exist for sending Poor Law children to Canada, where the venture has achieved great success, lads and youths to Australian farms for three months' training, men with capital to all dominions of the Empire. (Such should leave their money behind, and work for a year on the land in their selected state before they purchase.) Women of all ages and conditions are required, and are given assistance and cheap passages. But all women should be sent under the care of the British Women's Emigration Association (Miss Lefroy, Imperial Institute, S.W.). Public-school

boys and university men will find a hard but healthy life in all places of British rule. The question of families is the hardest of all to face, as it often means the husband's venture, leaving wife and children behind, or, the forlorn landing of the united family with neither house nor lodging prepared for them. It seems best to try for one of the ready-made homesteads on the Canadian Pacific Railway or in Victoria, Australia, in such cases, though the expense is as much as £100 for a start and passage, and even then, the first year is one of no small difficulty to those accustomed to all the conveniences of a town and shops.

In all the varying circumstances, the social worker should apply first for full information to the official source at Whitehall, or to the Associated Voluntary Societies' Committee at the Royal Colonial Institute (full address as under). Information, however, is not the only requirement of social workers. They want to find ways and means; fares, etc., must be provided, and landing money, and the real heart of nearly all emigration business is "where can we get the necessary funds?" Until all municipalities have the power to use their unemployed funds for careful colonisation or for loans to reputable emigrants—which is much to be wished—the burden of fares falls on the shoulders of the charitable public. There seems, indeed, no truer charity than to help the workless to regular work and to homes across the seas; for this charity has a threefold benefit in its train—it reduces the terrible competition at home, it helps to build up a really British Empire, and it gives the person or persons a good chance of starting afresh with a prospect of success.

Colonisation, Child—(aged 6 to

14). This subject has been much in evidence during the last few years. A central committee is now being formed in London, having for its object the co-operation of all the varied activities. During 1910 some 2,700 children (*i.e.*, of school age, 6 to 14) were sent to Canada by the great institutions dealing with the children of the streets (see **WAIFS AND STRAYS**). For every boy sent to Canada through Dr. Barnardo's Homes, there were fifteen applications from farmers desirous of their help, showing the demand for children in the Dominion. Girls and boys are also sent out by the "Church of England Waifs and Strays" to be boarded out in farms, a fee of about 5s. a week being paid by the Home authorities. In no case are the children allowed to be "adopted" until a certain age is attained. Inspectors are employed to visit all homes to which such children are sent, and the Government also exercises supervision over child-immigrants. Out of 100 cases sent overseas, about 2 per cent. are failures—a much smaller number than any such work at home can show. There are, of course, "sweating" farmers' houses to which it would be dangerous to send young children—as there are in England—but the great majority treat the tender years of the immigrant with respect, and provide a real home for our unfortunate children.

Mrs. Close and Mr. Fairbridge, of Exeter College, Oxford, have recently called the earnest attention of all emigration agencies to the cause of child emigration. Mrs. Close has a farm to which are sent quite young children of five, six or eight years. They are educated in the country of their adoption, and escape the year or two of necessary learning which the greater

number of colonists have to undergo. The Government of Canada heartily welcomed Mrs. Close's experiment, and have promised their support to an enlargement of her activities. Mr. Fairbridge (assisted by Mr. Pearson, C.M.G., who went round the colonies with Sir Charles Lucas in 1909) has founded at Oxford an organisation for training children of the State and other like children on farms in the various British states. It is, at present, only an attempt to rouse public opinion to help in a great experiment. The cost of the grouped cottage system in England comes to about £33 a year per child. It is urged that the same work may be better done in the oversea states at a cost of £20.

Lastly the Guardians of the Poor, look wistfully toward the new England wherein to place their young charges and thus to divest them of the "pauper taint." Many hundreds go to Canada at the expense of the Guardians at the age of fifteen, sixteen and seventeen. But an earlier age seems preferable inasmuch as the formative years of twelve to eighteen should be spent in the country of adoption. The Local Government Board (*q.v.*) at present has no power to allow the rates to be spent overseas on boarding out children in farm houses—a work which is done so successfully by the great voluntary agencies—and without a special Act of Parliament all efforts to induce such expenditure must be in vain. The chief difficulty in the way of such a proposal seems to be the lack of Local Government Board supervision outside Great Britain. It is much to be hoped that the oversea states will offer their own inspection to the home authorities, and thus co-operate in a work which must enrich the states and give a

far better future to our English children.

Some of the Australian states board out their "State" children excellently, using the police as officers of inspection. Such supervision is the only method possible when dealing with states of vast extent. But, if the overseas states really want population—and girls can be thus sent, as well as boys—they will do well to offer some workable scheme to the voluntary societies as an experiment in child immigration. The moral and religious training of these children must in no wise be overlooked, as true "homes" are only based on Christian self-control and sacrifice.

Mrs. Close's address is Eaton Square, S.W.

Mr. Kingsley Fairbridge (of the Child Emigration Society) is at Exeter College, Oxford.

A committee to co-ordinate all such efforts is sitting at the Royal Colonial Institute, Northumberland Avenue, W.C., the Sec. of which is Mr. Pearson, C.M.G.

Colonisation, Preparation for.—The experienced colonising agent amongst social workers, and especially those who have seen the colonists at work in the great dominions of the Empire will acknowledge the two great mistakes of the past. First, there has been too much "pitch-forking," the results of which are visible to all visitors to Wellington, Sydney, Melbourne or Winnipeg. Then there is a serious lack of equipment. Boys and men are sent to farms who have been born and bred in towns. However much social workers may desire to "get them off somewhere," it is a serious task to decide the exact place, the work they are fitted for, and the outlook two years' hence must not be forgotten. As the Colonies get more populated and can choose their immigrants, there grows up a distinct

objection to having unprepared people cast upon them. Canada has almost forbidden "charitable" or "aided" settlers within her borders. The great influence of the Salvation Army (*q.v.*) and of the Roman Catholic Church in Canada allows a certain leniency in dealing with their immigrants, but to the vast mass of British, about to enter Canada, £5 will be asked of each person as a condition of entry or a letter assuring him of employment; and a very strict moral and physical standard will be demanded. This is but to show how necessary has become some sort of training for Colonial life in British North America. Again, in Australia and New Zealand there have been rejections even at the end of that long voyage: and shipping companies have had to return to Great Britain men of poor physical powers or of low moral type. These must be dealt with *here*, and not sent overseas. Until compulsory labour colonies are available there will be "complains in our streets" and much "decay" of character, but we must for ever cast away the idea (which has been so popular and has cost so much in suffering and bitter disappointment), that undesirables, and moral failures will do well "in the Colonies." They are the cause of serious friction between the branches of the British family.

It may then be asked (1) What training is necessary? (2) What is available? and (3) What ought to be supplied?

The training necessary for a youth is one of general adaptability. As 78 per cent. go on to the land as apprentices to agriculture, fruit culture, sheep and cattle rearing, at least six months on the land here in England would be a test rather than a real training. The farming in Canada and Australia differs so radically from our farming,

and the conditions of life are so varied, that an English-trained farmer has to begin over again in the larger areas overseas. But a lad can learn how to handle implements, to manage a horse, to milk a cow, and, perhaps, some simple blacksmithery within six or twelve months. For a girl, domestic experience is the one thing needful to success, and a character self-respecting and genuinely womanly. Such a girl or woman is invaluable in a Canadian farm house. The real preparation is deeper than that of so-called "education." It is of character and adaptability. When we ask what training is available, there is very little indeed to produce. For the two to three hundred thousand of our citizens who leave our shores annually to work on farms, there is no public preparation except a few classes at technical schools. Industrialism swallows all our schools; agriculture, still the greatest of our "trades" in numbers, is left outside altogether. There are neither classes nor schools for young farmers or for farm-labourers. There are, however, Colonial training schools for lads of the wealthier classes, one near London, but the cost is prohibitive for persons of small means, while there is also a college for ladies about to emigrate.

Quite recently, generous donors at Sydney have opened a farm for training young English lads over seventeen on the land and under the conditions in which they are intended to work. The terms of entry are: (1) the candidates must be over seventeen and under twenty-one; (2) must be passed by the Agent-General for New South Wales (Cannon Street, E.C.); (3) must be able to pay full fare of £17 and have £2 in hand on landing. Three months free training, including board and lodging, will be

supplied by the Trustees of the Dreadnought Training Farm, and a post as labourer on a farm will be found for eligible lads at the end of this training. For full details, apply as above; to the Agent-General for N.S.W.; or to the Lord Mayor, Town Hall, Sydney, Australia, Chairman of the Trustees.

The training ought to begin with our elementary scholars. After thirteen, a lad should spend a year or two on a school farm (such as exists in Sydney and elsewhere). In the morning he is taught simple chemistry and book-work generally; in the afternoon he has practical work, following the plough, with the flock-master or cattle-herd, or in the smithy. The Great Public School of Paramatta (the Eton of Australia) has purchased a house close to the school, at which are lodged the agricultural students (boys over sixteen). Any afternoon these lads may be seen, clothed in "overalls," cleaning out "shuppen" or "sties," learning the "art" of ploughing straight and carrying out their morning lectures on the school farm. These lads are sons of the "squatter" and will be glad, later, of any and every experience on the land. To every elementary and public school, there should be a like "annexe" upon which 25 per cent. of the lads might be trained for agricultural work. Perhaps a "county" school might be started for the country lads, say in Kent, to experiment as to cost, etc. There is a wonderful improvement in morals when lads are set on the land. The healthy toil on the land supplements the labour at the desk better even than games. The training of lads in "hobbies" is also one of the most necessary parts of their education. Set a German lad by himself all the evening and out comes his knife and a block of wood, whence issues a toy for

the English market! Set English lads far from a town on a back-block and they will often sicken for "something to do"; they cannot draw or paint, or carve, or play an instrument. Their minds become blank and, sometimes, diseased from want of a hobby.

There is a movement in Kent for training girls for Colonial life. Classes are held at the local Technical Institute for cheesemaking, rough cookery, and laundry, while the gymnasium is open for physical culture. Domestic experience is placed first and foremost before intending emigrants, being backed and supplemented by a common sense course of body training. (Hon. Sec., Miss Harper, Rusthale, Tunbridge Wells.)

Commercial Morality.—There is, of course, only one normal type of moral conduct; for morality is nothing if it is not absolute and universal. Commerce cannot have a peculiar code of its own. The elementary principles of all right conduct—truth, justice, honesty—are meant to apply to the methods of buying and selling exactly as they do to those of every other trade or profession. And we may rest assured that these ethical principles are widely honoured throughout the commercial world. Indeed, apart from this ideal, it would have been impossible to build up the vast and intricate system of credit upon which modern commerce is based. But there are grave reasons for anxiety. The enormous field of commerce, in which all of us are more or less concerned, is exposed at every point to the dangers of fraud and dishonesty. And these dangers have been intensified by the increasing stress of competition. As evidence of this fact, it is enough to cite the Report of the London Chamber of Commerce on the subject of secret commissions

(see **ILLICIT COMMISSIONS**), which is a terrible revelation of the iniquities that prevail among business transactions.

It should be noted, however, that another theory of commerce has sometimes been put forward, which does not pretend to be moral. It invokes the old principle of *caveat emptor*, as an excuse for dishonest practices in trade. "Let the buyer see to it," it says. "If he is foolish enough to buy inferior or worthless articles, that is his own fault. Business is business, and not philanthropy. Fraud and adulteration are only forms of competition." From this point of view a business transaction is regarded as a contest between rivals, who may try to overreach one another by every means in their power, apart from any moral considerations. Probably few men would dare to acknowledge openly this savage view of commerce; but, in fact, it has been acted upon to such an extent that the State has been forced to intervene. In the interests of the community at large, and as a protection for honest traders, a long series of Acts have been passed with a view to restraining some of the most obvious offences against commercial morality—*e.g.*, the Food and Drugs Act (see **ADULTERATION**), the Merchandise Marks Act, the Prevention of Corruption Act (see **ILLICIT COMMISSION**), the Companies Acts, etc.

Unfortunately, there is still wide scope for the "tricks of trade" beyond the range of existing Acts of Parliament. "While the great and direct frauds have been diminishing, the small and indirect frauds have been increasing, alike in variety and number" (*cf.* Spencer: *The Morals of Trade*). For example, the following practices ought to be condemned as dishonourable:—(i) On the part

of the seller: (a) Adulteration of goods which cannot reasonably be known to the buyer; (b) False or intentionally misleading statements as to the quality or history of goods; (c) Commissions to employees (as distinct from regular fees to commission agents or brokers), except where the fact and the amount could easily be known and would be approved by all the parties concerned in the transaction; (d) Deception as to the prices current of any particular article. (ii) On the part of the buyer: (a) "Bargaining," *i.e.*, trying to beat down the price of an article below its normal cost of production; (b) Buying cheap articles irrespective of the conditions under which they may have been produced, *e.g.*, by "sweating" (see **SWEATED INDUSTRIES**); (c) Leaving debts unpaid for long periods.

Individual cases of conscience may occur which require careful advice. "I must give up either my religion or my work" is a frequent dilemma. If it is a clear case of fraud or dishonesty, for which the actor assumes responsibility, the worker should not hesitate to encourage him to make the necessary personal sacrifice for the sake of his conscience. But it is important to define the responsibility of an agent. For example, a clerk is not accountable for the accuracy of a statement which he is instructed to write, and which will be signed by his employer. Nor is a printer responsible for a circular or book bearing the author's name. It is a further question whether an agent should continue to act in any capacity, however subordinate, for a swindling company or a fraudulent tradesman.

Commissionaires, Corps of.—This Corps was founded in 1859 by the late Captain Sir Edward Walter,

K.C.B., to provide suitable employment for non-commissioned officers and privates of all branches of His Majesty's Navy and Army, who are discharged with good characters. The Corps now numbers about 4,000 members, with head-quarters at 419 Strand, London, W.C., and out-quarters in Belfast, Birmingham, Bristol, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne and Nottingham. Every soldier or sailor discharged with a good character and in good health may apply for admission, and will be eligible for admission if his record, while serving in the Navy or the Army, shows him to be suitable. The average weekly rate of wages is about 28s., although many members of the Corps earn much higher wages. The fact that the members of the Corps are carefully picked adds not a little to their value. Moreover, the security which is given for all members of the Corps induces employers to offer good wages. The Corps is governed by means of regulations carefully drawn up. Most admirable among these are the rules which govern the Sick Fund, the Convalescent Hospital Fund, the Savings Bank, and the Insurance and Pension Fund. The number of admissions into the Corps is determined by the demands of employers, which tend to increase. Members of the Corps are employed on work of all kinds. Some are engaged to do permanent work; others are temporarily employed. They may also be employed at special rates for service abroad, at hospitals and theatres; and often prove most useful guides for children and strangers in London. The uniform worn by the Corps is of value when members are employed as door-keepers or to take tickets and money. From the point of view of the social worker the chief merit of the Corps is that

it saves many of the best men in the Navy and Army from drifting into unemployment (*q.v.*) or ill-paid work. All communications should be made to the Adjutant.

Committees of Social Service.—(See DIOCESAN SOCIAL SERVICE COMMITTEES.)

Common Council of the City of London. "The mayor, commonalty and citizens of London," exercises its powers through the Court of Common Council, consisting of the lord mayor, aldermen, and common councilmen. The lord mayor is elected annually from the aldermen who have served as sheriff. He becomes a justice of the peace for life. The aldermen are elected for life by the different wards. They also are justices of the peace. The common councilmen are elected annually by the wards. The principal officers of the corporation (not being judicial officers), are the town clerk, chamberlain (treasurer), medical officer of health, surveyor, comptroller (conveyancer), remembrancer (parliamentary solicitor) and solicitor. The position of the City is unique in many respects; but for general purposes it may be sufficiently accurate to describe it as in some ways approximating to that of a county borough out of London, and in others to that of a metropolitan borough within London. At any rate, it seems unnecessary here to describe the powers and duties of the common council in detail. (See METROPOLITAN BOROUGH COUNCILS, and the annual volume of *London Statistics*, issued by the London County Council.) The annual expenditure of the Common Council (last return) amounted to £1,300,000, and the outstanding loans to £6,275,000. The City contributes largely to the equalisation fund of London (see EQUALISATION OF RATES).

Common Lodging Houses.—Common lodging houses are the home of the vagrant and tramp, affording him shelter for the night when he can produce the necessary 4d., 5d., or 6d. His alternative is to sleep out, or to go to the casual ward (*q.v.*) of the workhouse (*q.v.*). In addition to his bed in a large dormitory, there is provided a bar and a common kitchen. At the bar for a few pence he can procure his supper or breakfast, and this he cooks on the stove in the kitchen, using utensils also common to all. Some lodging houses have their regular customers, who live there night after night throughout the year; others are frequented by travellers on the road, and seldom for two nights in succession are the same beds occupied by the same men. A lodging house must be licensed, and open at any time to inspection. No person under sixteen years of age may make use of the house as a shelter. Lodging houses for the most part are frequented by the lowest strata of society, and those whom crime and drink have left practically penniless. Their influence in consequence is of the worst. Little chance has a youth who finds himself, even for one night, compelled to seek the "doss" house. Realizing the bad surroundings of the lodging house, a company was formed some years ago to set up model lodging houses (*q.v.*), under the name of The Rowton Houses, Ltd. This company has been so far successful in that it has built palatial premises, is very strict in its rules, and keeps its houses spotlessly clean. It has not, however, been able to alter the character of the frequenters of such places. It is considered a little more respectable to live in a Rowton House than in a common lodging house, but the step from one to the other is not a great one.

If the provision of lodging houses for men is bad, that for women is infinitely worse. There exist very few lodging houses for women only; and often refusing the casual ward the vagrant woman is driven into vice. It is sincerely to be hoped that this will soon be remedied, either through the action of the State or of the local authorities.

Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society.—This Society was founded in 1865. Members consist of persons, or local authorities (*q.v.*), scientific and kindred societies in sympathy with its objects. An annual subscription of 5s. entitles members to copies of all literature issued; a subscription of 10s. 6d. entitles to literature and to expert advice on any matter coming within the scope of the Society. Its objects are:—

(1) To secure and maintain the free and uninterrupted use of all public rights of way by land and water, and to preserve all commons, village greens, waste lands, roadside wastes, and other lands, such as disused burial grounds, or fuel and poor's allotments—subject to open space restrictions,—ferries, fishing rights, and watering-places.

(2) To assist local authorities and other public bodies to secure open spaces, by purchase or otherwise, for the use and enjoyment of the public, and to secure the regulation of common lands.

(3) To promote arrangements with landowners for the opening for the use of the public of places of natural beauty or open spaces and recreation (*q.v.*) grounds. (See also LONDON PLAYING FIELDS SOCIETY.)

(4) To give advice or assistance to its members and affiliated local authorities and societies as to the best means of permanently recording all public rights of way, common land, and open spaces in their neighbourhood,

(5) To secure the provision of finger posts and suitable stiles on footpaths, and to give advice with regard to the repair of rights of way.

Its efforts have practically led to the cessation of attempts to secure the enclosure of common land by means of Acts of Parliament, and improvements in the law relating to highways, commons, and open spaces are due to its initiation.

The Society has often prevented undue interference with public rights by railway, gas, water, and other private Bills which seek to acquire common land, and to extinguish rights of way. The Society claims that its efforts, during the last twenty years alone, have secured the preservation of upwards of 100,000 acres of open space.

The Secretary is Mr. Lawrence W. Chubb, 25 Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.

Compensation for Injuries.—(See WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.)

Compositors.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Compound Householders.—(See FRANCHISE.)

Concealment of Birth.—(See REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS.)

Conciliation Boards.—(See TRADE BOARDS.)

Confectionery.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Consumption.—(See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM, PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION, and SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.)

Contagious Diseases.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES.)

Contagious Diseases of Animals Act, 1894. (See also ANIMALS' DISEASES.) With the exception of those provisions relating to dairies, cowsheds and milkshops, which are supervised by urban and rural district councils (*q.v.*), the local authority under this Act

outside boroughs with a population of 10,000 or more is the County Council. Places and areas are, in certain cases, declared to be infected with cattle plague (Secs. 5 and 6), with pleuro-pneumonia or foot and mouth disease (Secs. 8, 9, 12), and under Sec. 10, the Board of Agriculture (*q.v.*) may make general orders for prescribing the cases in which places and areas are to be declared infected with other diseases.

Continuation Schools.—In 1909 the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education (*q.v.*) published a comprehensive report upon the subject of continuation schools, which deserves the serious consideration of anyone who realises that the entire cessation of education by the scholars of the elementary schools (*q.v.*), immediately they have fulfilled the legal requirements, is fatal to their own interests and the national welfare. The following notes are based upon one section of the report, and cannot be considered as a substitute for its careful perusal. The first organised effort to establish evening schools in England was made by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (see EDUCATION) in 1711. It was followed about twenty years later by the work of Griffith Jones, of Llanddowror, a member of the Society, in establishing "circulating schools" throughout Wales. Two-thirds of the pupils were adults. The main purpose of the circulating schools, which were so-called because the teachers stopped in a town or village for a short time and then passed on, "making a continued circuit of the whole country," was to teach the people to read the Bible in Welsh. Towards the end of the eighteenth century he was succeeded by Thomas Charles of Bala, whose labours for the better

education of the adult poor suggested the adult school (*q.v.*) movement, which began at Nottingham in 1798 and Bristol in 1812. Its course divided into two streams. In the one direction it was religious, and led to the establishment of the night schools which were numerous at the beginning of the nineteenth century in connection with the Church of England and other religious bodies. The foundation of the Young Men's Christian Association (*q.v.*) in 1844 may be regarded as one point of this branch. The other was scientific, and in some respects semi-political. Mechanics' Institutions were established in many towns largely through the advocacy of Dr. Birkbeck. The development, it is important to notice, was based upon a strong body of public opinion among the working classes. The inspectors, appointed by the Education Department in 1839, reported upon adult night schools as well as schools for children. In 1842 a People's College was established in Sheffield, and served as the model for the Working Men's College founded by Frederick Denison Maurice and his friends in London, in 1854.

The Government made an important departure in 1851—the year of the Great Exhibition—by giving grants to evening schools, and two years later, on the Prince Consort's advice, established the department of Science and Art. The evening schools under the Education Department were intended to continue the elementary education of the day schools, though still regarded as elementary schools, while more advanced work was aided by the Science and Art Department. A great change, requiring Parliamentary sanction, was made in 1890 by the Education Code Act, which enacted that “it shall not be required as a

condition of a parliamentary grant to an evening school that elementary education shall be the principal part of the education there given.” Three years later another important change was made by the abolition of the age limit of eighteen years, and the recognition for the making of grants on the attendance of persons over twenty-one years of age. By the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890 large sums of money were placed at the disposal of the county councils (*q.v.*) for the purposes of technical and commercial education. Two bodies, therefore, were occupied in the same field of activity, which at last led to a clash and some confusion, until the Science and Art Department was absorbed by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) in 1899. The Education Act of 1902 endeavoured to regulate the situation by regarding evening schools as part of the system of higher education (see EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES), which required to be co-ordinated with other branches. It rests, therefore, with the local authorities to arrange the curriculum most suited to the needs of the respective localities, but the assurance of a regular attendance of a certain number requiring instruction in a particular subject, as a general rule, would secure its supply. Various methods are adopted to encourage regular attendance at evening schools, and employers of labour are co-operating in them. Another form of continuation school in which they have shown interest and which is a development of recent years is the trade school (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY and TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS).

Continued Fever.—(See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Convalescent Homes.—These institutions are so numerous and so varied that no general account of

them can be given here. The social worker, however, may need to know that it is¹ unwise to send a sick person to a convalescent home—as is frequently done—without obtaining the opinion of a qualified medical man; it is advisable to know whether the home is the best for the patient. Patients needing rest and quiet are sometimes sent to homes full of rough and noisy men. Sometimes patients are sent to homes in the wrong places. The best line of action in London is to obtain the co-operation of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). In this way the patient may be sent to the most suitable home, the relatives pay a due proportion of the cost, and various societies, existing for the purpose, contribute to the expenses. It is important to avoid sending to these Homes or to Sanatoria either those who are dying (see HOMES FOR THE DYING) or those who are in search of a cheap holiday. Both kinds are to be found in convalescent homes.

Convicts.—(See PRISONERS.)

Cookery.—(See DOMESTIC ECONOMY AND SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERS.)

Co-operative Congress.—This is held each year in different parts of the United Kingdom under the auspices of the Co-operative Union (*q.v.*). The Congress usually meets in June, and lasts three days. The business of Congress commences with an inaugural address by the President, after which deputations are received from co-operative bodies abroad and kindred associations at home. The report of the Central Board, which is the official review of co-operative achievements during the past year, is then considered. The remainder of the time (apart from that given to entertainment) is taken up with the consideration of special questions, out of which the policy of

the coming year is framed. These Congresses have been held in an unbroken series since 1869. The Congresses held in 1831 and the two following years have no connection with the later ones. They were gatherings of early co-operators at the period when Robert Owen and his schemes dominated the councils of the upper working classes. The reports of these early Congresses are now very rare, but a complete set may be seen in the Library of the University of London.

A series of International Congresses has also been held under the auspices of the International Co-operative Alliance, which, so far, has had its head-quarters in London. The seventh such Congress was held at Cremona, Italy, in 1907, and the reports (issued in English) of this and previous meetings afford rich material to the co-operative student. The difficulty of language and the diversity of the associations represented make it doubtful whether such meetings have done more in the past than enable the co-operators of different lands to see one another's habits and institutions.

Co-operative Holidays' Association.—The Children's Country Holiday Fund (*q.v.*) and Boys' Camps (*q.v.*) are well-known means of providing holidays for children and lads. Less familiar, though quite as much needed, is this Association for enabling young men and women to make good use of their annual holiday. Its origin was due to the arrangement of a weekend holiday by a Rambling Club in a Lancashire town. Many who had previously associated holiday pleasures only with bands, crowds and shows, learnt some of the delights of the beauties of nature. Dr. Paton saw possibilities of developing the idea, and the Association was formed in 1897. The object is

not merely to provide an economical and enjoyable holiday, but to cultivate character by placing the parties under the leadership of voluntary workers of ability and enthusiasm. The residents in the Guest Houses take some share in the service of the community. The "domestic helpers" are sensible and educated women who undertake to do the ordinary drudgery of the house on the understanding that they have fixed hours of leisure and service, a fair wage and are enabled to share in all the pleasures and advantages of the Guest House, whilst they are off duty. Enthusiasts conduct parties into the most interesting spots in the neighbourhood to learn something of the natural history, antiquities or folklore. This assistance is voluntary. The finances of the Association are on a sound basis. It is neither a profit-making nor a charitable concern. Each year a large grant is made to such societies as the National Home Reading Union (*q.v.*), the National Trust for Preserving Places of Great Natural Beauty, the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society (*q.v.*), etc., and a considerable sum is raised to provide for holidays for poor folk. The headquarters of the Association is College House, Brunswick Street, Manchester.

Co-operative Societies.—A co-operative society may be defined as an association for the purpose of joint trading or manufacture, which is conducted on such terms that all who are prepared to assume the duties of membership share in its rewards in proportion to the degree in which they make use of the association.

There are four main departments of co-operative effort:—

(1) *Co-operative Banks.* These were first founded in Germany, about 1850, by Schulze-Delitzsch and Raiffeisen. Similar banks have

been founded in practically every country of Europe. The essentials of the co-operative bank are three: the credit users are the members of the bank; the credit given is chiefly personal; this credit is intended primarily for small men. But there are two types of bank. Those founded on Schulze-Delitzsch's model are suited in particular to artisans, shopkeepers and big farmers; they operate by the methods of short loans, current account, and bill of exchange; and though most of the German banks have unlimited liability, this is not the case in the Italian *Banche popolari* and elsewhere. The Raiffeisen banks, called village banks, are suited only for small agriculturists; they make simple loans on personal security and not on mortgage; and unlimited liability is almost essential, since otherwise they will not be trusted with funds. No Raiffeisen bank has ever failed in Germany, and therefore the risk to the members is in practice slight. A few village banks exist in Ireland; and in 1910 a bill was introduced into the House of Lords by Lord Shaftesbury for the promotion of thrift and credit banks in the United Kingdom. With the increase of small holdings (*q.v.*) the number of village banks in England will doubtless grow also.

(2) *Agricultural Societies.* These also exist in every country of Europe and in some parts of the British Empire, but Denmark may be taken as the model country here. First, there are the supply societies, for the purchase of manures, seeds, implements, etc. Secondly, there are dairies for butter-making, egg societies for the collection and packing of eggs, bacon factories for bacon curing. All the societies of the second type market the produce of their members. Co-operative supply is generally found much

easier than co-operative production and co-operative sale. The Danes have led the way in the latter because of their excellent democratic education, which has trained them to hold together and exact very drastic punishments from those who attempt to sell part of their produce through private middlemen. Nearly every farmer in Denmark, which is a country of small peasant proprietors, is a co-operator. A similarity of agricultural conditions enabled Sir Horace Plunkett, in 1888, to introduce co-operation into Ireland on the Danish model, with such success that there were in existence, in 1906, 270 co-operative dairies and 159 co-operative supply societies. In 1900 the Agricultural Organisation Society was founded in London to do the same work for Great Britain. The supply societies here have flourished most: and there can be no doubt that the recent experiments in county council small holdings must be supplemented by the various forms of agricultural co-operation, if they are to succeed. In 1906 there were in Great Britain 134 co-operative supply societies. There is a great need at the present time for some kind of organisation in the different county towns of England, which will link up and control the local experiments in small holdings and co-operation.

(3) Workers' societies or associations of working men producers. (See COPARTNERSHIP.)

(4) *Co-operative Stores.* Here Great Britain is the model country. Beginning in 1880, experiments were made in this direction, but, as a movement, the co-operative store may be said to date from the establishment of the Rochdale Pioneers in 1844. There were in the United Kingdom, in 1906, 1,448 stores with a membership of over two million persons, a

share capital of twenty-seven millions, sales, amounting to sixty-three millions, and profits of just under ten millions. The distinctive features of the Rochdale system are, sale at market price, cash payment, and distribution of profits among members in proportion to their purchases (the "divi." as it is popularly called). The stores are strongest in the industrial centres of the North of England and of the Lowlands of Scotland. The retail stores sometimes manufacture a part of their goods. But this is not usual. The English Wholesale and Scottish Wholesale Societies act as wholesale buyers for the individual stores, who are their members. These Wholesale Societies have productive departments of their own: for example, biscuit works, tailoring factories, boot and shoe works. As a type of economic structure, the store differs from all other forms of co-operation. The store is an association of consumers, all other societies are associations of producers in the last resort. Thus the agricultural supply society assists farmers by supplying the materials needed in the raising of crops: the credit bank supplies the small shop-keeper or artisan with the credit needed for the conducting of his business. But the store exists to feed, clothe and furnish the working man and his family.

Continental countries have copied the Rochdale system faithfully with this exception, that in Belgium, France and Italy the political and religious neutrality preserved in England and elsewhere has been abandoned. Indeed, it is said that Belgian socialism would collapse if it had not the co-operative store to depend on for funds and general support. In Germany, since 1902, there has been a split in the store movement;

but the cause of the dispute was not altogether political. The Central Union of stores (head-quarters, Hamburg) withdrew from Schulze-Debitzsch's General Union because they felt that the interests of the stores were being subordinated to those of the credit banks. However, the credit banks had considerable justification for accusing the seceders of tendencies towards Social Democracy. Italy is interesting because in Milan and Rome there are Army and Civil Service stores, copied from those in London, which distribute profits on the Rochdale system. The Swiss stores, which in several cases drew their first rules from England, have followed their English model with great success.

Works of reference :—*Industrial Co-operation*, edited by Catherine Webb; G. J. Holyoake, *The History of Co-operation* (2 vols.); H. W. Wolff, *People's Banks; Reports of the Annual Co-operative Congress*, published by the Co-operative Union, Limited; C. R. Fay, *Co-operation at Home and Abroad*.

Co-operative Union.—The Co-operative Union, Limited, which was established as the result of the Congress of 1869, represents the British co-operative movement on its non-commercial side. Its members are delegates from the stores, productive and other co-operative societies, whose rules are approved by it. For the purposes of organisation, the United Kingdom is mapped out into seven sections with Sectional Boards, at the head of which is the Central Board, the governing body of the Union, with its general offices at Manchester. The Union acts as general adviser to societies, especially on points of rule and law, as publishers of co-operative literature, and as teachers of the principles and methods of co-operation. The importance attached to education (as

evidenced by the fact that many societies put aside 2½ per cent. of their profits for this purpose) is a distinguishing feature of British co-operation. The educational committee of the Co-operative Union, established in 1885, defines co-operative education as "primarily the formation of co-operative character and opinion; and secondarily, though not necessarily of less import, the training of men and women to take part in industries or social reforms and municipal life generally." But it is to be feared that practice often falls short of the precept, and that much of the educational grant is unappreciated or frittered away in tea parties and social recreations.

Another important committee of the Co-operative Union is the Joint Parliamentary Committee, which watches legislation, examines new bills and tries to protect co-operative interests in Parliament. By activity of this sort the Co-operative Union has secured not a few of the privileges which British co-operators now enjoy: for example, the right to deal with the public instead of with their own members only; the exemption of societies from charge to income tax on the profits of their business on condition that the number of their shares is not limited. The Industrial and Provident Societies Act of 1893, which is in force to-day, owes certain of its clauses to the same source.

It has been said that the success of the co-operative store depends on the loyalty of the working class women, and the Co-operative Union has wisely encouraged the introduction of women on to those of its committees which are not of a purely business nature. The women's guild, the head of women's activity within the Union, conducts investigations into such subjects as the wages and housing of

co-operative employees, credit trading and propaganda in poorer districts.

Copartnership.—(See PROFIT SHARING AND LABOUR COPARTNERSHIP.)

Copartnership Housing. — (See also GARDEN CITIES, HOUSING ACTS and TOWN PLANNING.) This method of housing is based on a co-operative system of land purchase, house building, ownership and management, instead of individual ownership.

The first Society was the Tenant Co-operators, Ltd. (1888), but the Ealing Tenants, Ltd., was the forerunner of a recent rapidly developed group of such Societies at Sevenoaks, Leicester, Letchworth Garden City, Bournville, Manchester, Hampstead, Harborne and Fallings Park. Each society buys its land wholesale with the shares subscribed by intending tenants, helped by loan stock where necessary. The Society has a lien upon the tenant's shares if he fails to pay the rent regularly. After interest has been paid on the borrowed money the surplus goes to the tenant-shareholder, not in cash, but as shares. The cost of internal repairs may be taken out of each tenant's share of profit, thus giving everybody a stimulus to keep down the cost of repairs. If a tenant member is compelled to leave the neighbourhood he takes his share book with him, or arranges for a transfer at par. The copartners left behind share with him the risk of finding another tenant. The share capital of nine societies amounted in 1910 to £40,000, and the loan stock to over £100,000.

The method adopted by these societies is:—

- (a) To secure suitable building land near a town, and plan the same as regards roads, number of houses to the acre, open

spaces, and arrangement of buildings so as to ensure for all time healthy and cheerful houses and surroundings for the tenants.

- (b) To let the houses at rents which will pay 5 per cent. on shares, and 4 per cent. on loan stock in addition to working expenses, repairs, depreciation, etc., and to divide the surplus profits in the shape of shares among the tenant members in proportion to the rents paid by them.

Nearly all these societies are now entitled to borrow two-thirds of the capital they require under section 4 of the Housing Act, 1909, at about 3½ per cent., from the Public Works Loan Commissioners. The societies are registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1893.

A Copartnership Tenants' Federation has been formed, with an office at 6 Bloomsbury Square; Secretary, F. Litchfield.

Coppersmithing. — (See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Coroner.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Corporal Punishment.—The right of the parent or person *in loco parentis* to inflict proper and suitable punishment has been specially retained by the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN' CHARTER). Many people are of opinion that it is not only a right but, too often, nowadays, a neglected duty. The exercise of the right by the person *in loco parentis* is sometimes a cause of friction, and even of legal proceedings, between teacher and parent. The position of the teacher was carefully defined by Mr. Justice Phillimore in a case (*Mansell v. Griffin*) decided in 1908. "The teacher of the class," he said, "is entitled to use the ordinary means of preserving discipline, and as between the parent of the child

and the teacher it is enough for the teacher to say that 'the punishment I have administered was moderate, was not dictated by a bad motive, and was such as is usually administered in schools, and such as a parent might expect a child to receive.' " Even in the case of an assistant teacher, who is forbidden by the regulations to administer corporal punishment, it does not necessarily follow that the parent can maintain an action for assault. It is in difficulties of this kind that the National Union of Teachers (*q.v.*) undertakes to provide legal assistance for its members.

Cottage Benefit Nursing Association.—(See VILLAGE NURSING.)

Cottage Homes.—(See CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.)

Cottage Nurses.—(See VILLAGE NURSING.)

Cotton Manufacture.—(See BOY LABOUR and TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Council Schools.—(See ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.)

Councils of Social Welfare.—(See also SOCIAL WELFARE ASSOCIATION.) An examination of the existing experiments which have been made in various boroughs in London, *e.g.*, Stepney, Hampstead, Finsbury, St. Pancras, Shoreditch, Bethnal Green and Westminster, reveals the fact that all these councils or associations, however much they may have modified their action in the face of local conditions, have started with very similar objects and have developed, or hope to develop, much the same constitution.

Their objects may be described very briefly as three in number:—

- (1) The greater union of all the forces working for the social welfare of a district.
- (2) The provision of a meeting place for the exchange of ideas and opinions.

- (3) The actual co-ordination where possible, of agencies whose efficiency might be increased by working in concert with each other.

With these objects in view it will not be difficult to see the kind of sentiment which an association aimed at either capturing or inspiring.

(1) It was generally held that there were numerous questions which pressed for a solution with which an individual institution, much less an individual worker, seemed powerless to grapple.

The logic of *quot homines tot sententiæ*—if it deserved the name—had led to an inevitable impasse. Everyone who desired the welfare of his borough saw daily the ravages of consumption in crowded and unventilated dwellings, the stunted growth of children who had insufficient open spaces to play in, the havoc wrought by the wrong choice of employment on boys and girls leaving school, and knew that individual effort, however devoted, was unable by itself to do more than rescue a few families from the abyss.

(2) Moreover, it was rightly felt that in every district there was a vast store of knowledge and experience in the possession of both individuals and institutions which needed greater facilities for distribution; that those who knew most, too often had the least opportunity of expressing their convictions; and that these things which lay at the disposal of but a few might become multiplied many times over in value if they were made public for the benefit of all.

(3) Also in many districts it was apparent that certain institutions of similar nature were crowded into one quarter, while another quarter near by was practically untouched; and that principles of relief differed in places where,

without much reorganisation, they might have been the same—in brief, that various agencies overlapped where they might have been able to dovetail.

Finally, this conclusion was reached, that reform could only come by a body of public opinion organised sufficiently to take a broad and compelling view of the whole question.

And the problem which waited the solution of reformers was, "How could this public opinion be secured or aroused?" The answer given was both practical and democratic. Some way must be found to provide a meeting ground for persons professing widely different opinions, both religious and political, where it would be possible for them to undertake measures for the welfare of the district without in any way compromising their individual convictions. In brief, the principle everywhere adopted was that Mesopotamia of religious difficulties—the principle of Inter-Denominationalism. Representatives of every church, every party, every educational or philanthropic institution, municipal or private, were to be sought so that from the very moment of its inauguration the basis of the council should be as broad and comprehensive as possible. Once formed, the council elected a strong executive committee with sub-committees to work on various special subjects, *e.g.*, public morality (temperance, gambling), public health (phthisis, infant mortality), social study and education, registration and co-ordination of relief, personal service.

The council, having discussed the measures of the sub-committee, could press them with all the power of an homogeneous and publicly recognised body.

It is very much to be desired

that the whole of London be shortly covered by associations such as have been described.

In some districts experiments will have been made, which no doubt will facilitate the formation of the council and allow it to take in hand, quite early in its career, the most difficult and thorny questions. In others the spirit will have to be created, the council will have to gain adherents tentatively and deal with subjects as uncontroversial as possible. United action in these will have to pave the way for those subjects where some sharp criticism may be expected. There is no lack of uncontroversial matter which demands immediate attention.

To take one instance only—the problem of consumption. How many social workers have been overcome with a feeling of paralysis when face to face with a home where the disease prevails, have known the difficulty of finding proper sanatorium treatment, of procuring the necessary isolation of the patient, and of obtaining the simplest precautions to save the children from being tainted with the poison? (See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM.)

In the future may lie the ideal of a public society which, in conjunction with municipal authorities, may eventually undertake in a systematic way the whole burden of the social problem. However that may be, whatever future is in store for these associations every step that is taken in combining different points of view and concentrating them or focusing them on certain definite evils will be in the right direction.

County Councils have the management of the administrative and financial business of "administrative counties," of which there are sixty-one besides London, which together cover the whole of

England and Wales, excluding the "county boroughs." Each county council consists of a chairman, aldermen, and councillors. It may also appoint a vice-chairman. The following remarks apply to county councils out of London. (See LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.) The chairman is selected for one year from within or without the council. He becomes a justice of the peace for the county. The aldermen are co-opted from within or without the council. Their term of office is six years. The councillors are directly elected, and serve for three years. The principal officers of a county council are the clerk, a medical officer, and the treasurer of the county. The county councils are, within their areas, the authorities for elementary and higher education, except as regards certain boroughs and other urban districts (see LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES). For these purposes they appoint education committees, whose members need not be members of the councils. Acting with the county justices by a standing joint committee, they may be regarded (untechnically) as the county police authority, except as regards any place in the county maintaining a separate police force. They either maintain all main roads (roads technically "main") or make annual payments to district councils who undertake the work. They may contribute to the cost of other highways and footpaths. They maintain county bridges, and provide lunatic asylums (*q.v.*), shire halls, county offices, and various other buildings for public purposes. They appoint old age pension committees (see PENSIONS IN OLD AGE). Other matters with which they are concerned are public health (see PUBLIC HEALTH ACT), and housing (see HOUSING ACTS), reformatories

and industrial schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS), isolation hospitals (*q.v.*), weights and measures, cinematograph exhibitions (*q.v.*), diseases of animals (see ANIMALS' DISEASES) fisheries conservancy, coroners (see DEAD, CARE OF THE), analysts, midwives (*q.v.*), gasmeters, light railways, homes for inebriates (*q.v.*) (see INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES), allotments (*q.v.*) and small-holdings (*q.v.*). They levy the county rates (as contributions from boards of guardians) and they prepare the county rate basis (see VALUATION). They are empowered in some measure to supervise the sanitary administration of lesser authorities in the county (see SANITARY AUTHORITIES). They have, in certain cases, important powers, if these lesser authorities should fail in the performance of their duties. They are concerned with alterations of the areas of lesser authorities, and have power to make bye-laws (*q.v.*) for the good rule and government of the county. The annual expenditure of county councils out of London (last return) amounted to nearly £16,000,000, and their outstanding loans to over £18,000,000, which included debt inherited from school boards (see LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES). The total charges of the debt for the year (repayments and interest) came to nearly £1,400,000. The principal revenues of the councils were rates, £6,800,000, government grants, £7,500,000. The foregoing figures (expenditure and revenue) are exclusive of government subventions for local purposes received by the councils, and by them handed over to other local authorities (see GRANTS).

County Court.—(See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.)

County Nursing Associations.—(See VILLAGE NURSING.)

Courts of Justice.—(See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE and CHILDREN'S COURTS.)

Crèches.—(See DAY NURSERIES.)

Credit Banks.—(See CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.)

Cremation.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Criminal Statistics.—(See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.)

Cripples.—(See BOYS' WORKSHOPS, EDUCATION OF CRIPPLES, GUILD OF THE BRAVE POOR THINGS, INVALID CHILDREN'S AID ASSOCIATION and TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES.)

Cruelty to Animals.—(See ANIMALS, CRUELTY TO, and ROYAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO ANIMALS.)

Cruelty to Birds.—(See BIRDS, CRUELTY TO.)

Cruelty to Children.—The law on this subject is now contained in the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), but it seems unnecessary to set forth the text of the Act since it can be obtained for a few pence (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT) and epitomes of it are available in many forms. So it may be more useful to denote the effect of its provisions, based upon the annotation of the Act by Mr. Clarke Hall, who frequently acts as counsel in prosecuting on behalf of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (*q.v.*), from whose head or local offices assistance may readily be obtained in dealing with cases.

Shutting a child in a room where suffering would be likely to be caused by terror of the dark, or cold, or hunger, or thirst; the thrashing it with some instrument, as with a stick or poker; terrifying it with a dog, etc., or exposing a child of tender years to the inclemency of the weather show the nature of the offences which may be included within the meaning of the word "assault." It should

be noted that a parent or person standing *in loco parentis* has the right to punish a child (see CORPORAL PUNISHMENT), but must not cause unnecessary suffering or injury to the child's health. The next offence is to ill-treat the child. It is suggested that ill-treatment covers any course of conduct likely to cause injury to a child, whether such injury be mental or physical. "Neglect" of a child includes failure to provide the necessities of life. Poverty is not a legal justification for such neglect. It has been decided judicially that it is the duty of parents who had not the means of supplying proper food and nourishment for their infant children, to apply for the assistance provided by the Poor Law, but in order that their omission to do so may constitute a criminal offence there must be a wilful abstaining for four or five days from going to the Union. Legislation upon the feeding of children (*q.v.*), and the action of local authorities in providing necessities have tended to confuse the law on the subject which, in theory at least, does endeavour to maintain the principle of parental responsibility. Allowing a child to be in a verminous condition (see CLEANSING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN) is also "neglect"; so also is the failure, generally by the "Peculiar People," to provide medical attendance.

The points upon which it is necessary that the facts should be quite certain and, if necessary, supported by sound evidence are:—(1) That the person committing the offence is over sixteen years of age. (2) That the child upon whom the offence has been committed is under sixteen years—to be proved either by reliable witnesses or by producing the child in court. (3) That the child really was in the custody or the charge of the defendants. (4) Precise particulars of the nature

of the offence so that the legal advisers may know under which heading to frame the charge. (5) Evidence, such for example as a warning having been given by an N.S.P.C.C. inspector, to prove that the offence was "wilful" and not merely the result of an accident. (6) Evidence of a medical man to show that the offence was likely to cause unnecessary suffering or injury to the health of the child.

The punishment, of course, varies according to the gravity of the offence, and serious cases may be referred by the magistrate to a higher tribunal.

Cruelty to children is an offence which justly deserves and receives the reprobation of all right-thinking people. It stirs the emotions and, quite unintentionally perhaps, there may be a tendency to magnify unduly its gravity in a particular instance. Gossip of neighbours should be sifted with care, the possibility, for example, that an undisciplined boy richly deserves a sound thrashing should be weighed, careful allowance should be made for the natural prejudice against step-parents, and above all the social worker should realise that circumstantial evidence, which seems convincing to the worker familiar with the lives of the individuals concerned, may be wholly inadequate as proof of the offence in the impartial judicial mind of the magistrate before whom the offender is brought for condemnation.

Dangerous Trades.—Part IV of the Factory and Workshops Act of 1901 (*q.v.*) makes definite regulations respecting employment in certain occupations, and gives wide powers to the Home Secretary to make rules for the safety of the persons employed in any dangerous trade or occupation.

Notice of Industrial Poisoning and Anthrax. Cases of lead

(see **LEAD POISONING**), phosphorus, arsenic, or mercury poisoning, or anthrax, occurring in a factory or workshop must be notified in the same way as accidents (see **FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN**). Further, a private doctor attending a patient whom he believes to be suffering from any of these enumerated diseases contracted in a factory or workshop must, under penalty of 40s. fine, notify same to the Chief Inspector of Factories (see **FACTORY INSPECTORS**); for this he receives a fee of 2s. 6d. The Home Secretary may extend these provisions to any other industrial disease.

Fans. The inspector may require the provision of a fan or other mechanical means suitable to prevent the inhalation of dust, gas, vapour, or other impurity by the workers in any factory or workshop where grinding, glazing, polishing on a wheel, or other process generating dust, gas, etc., is carried on. Before requiring such provision, he need not prove that any person was actually injured; it has been decided in the courts of law that it is sufficient if the process tends to produce injury. (See also **FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN**.)

Lavatories. Suitable washing conveniences must be provided for the use of persons employed in places where lead, arsenic, or other poisonous substances are used.

Meals must not be taken by any person in any place where lead, arsenic, or other poisonous substance is so used as to give off dust or fumes, and suitable meal-places must be provided. Women, young persons, and children must not take their meals, or remain during meal-times, in the mixing rooms of glass-works, or in places where flint-glass is ground, cut, or polished; in lucifer match works (except where only wood is cut); in earthenware works, in parts where the ware is dipped,

dried, or scoured. By an Order of 1898, these rules which were in the old Act, are extended to a long list of operations where dust, gas, vapour, or other impurities are generated.

Restrictions on Employment :—

(a) *Women, young persons, and children* must not be employed in any part of a factory where wet spinning is carried on, unless means are provided to protect the workers from being wetted or to prevent steam from escaping into the room.

(b) *Young persons and children* must not be employed in the part of a factory or workshop where mirrors are silvered by the mercurial process, or where white lead is made.

(c) *Female young persons and children* must not be employed in the part of a factory where glass is melted or annealed.

(d) *Girls under sixteen* must not be employed in a factory or workshop where bricks or tiles (other than ornamental tiles) are made or finished, or where salt is made or finished.

(e) *Children* must not be employed in the part of a factory or workshop where dry grinding in the metal trade is carried on, or where lucifer matches are dipped.

Special Rules. "Where the Secretary of State is satisfied that any manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labour, used in factories or workshops, is dangerous or injurious to health or dangerous to life or limb, either generally or in the case of women, children, or any other class of persons, he may certify that manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labour to be dangerous; and thereupon the Secretary of State may, subject to the provisions of this Act, make such regulations as appear to him to be reasonably practicable, and to meet the necessity of the case" (Sec. 79).

Due notice must be given of any draft regulations under this Section, and twenty-one days allowed for the making of objections. The Secretary of State must consider any objections, and if he modifies his rules in consequence, the amended draft must be dealt with in the same way as an original draft. If the Secretary of State does not amend or withdraw any regulations to which objection has been taken, and if the objection is not withdrawn or he does not rule it to be frivolous, he must hold a public inquiry, at which the parties concerned may appear by counsel and witnesses may be examined on oath. He is not bound to adopt the report of the person holding the inquiry, but the regulations drawn up after the inquiry must be laid before both Houses of Parliament as soon as possible, and if annulled by resolution of either House within forty days, they become of no effect, without prejudice to the validity of anything done under them in the meanwhile.

The regulations may :—

(1) prohibit, modify, or limit the employment of any class of persons in any occupation certified to be dangerous ;

(2) prohibit, limit, or control the use of any material or process ; and

(3) modify or extend any special regulations for any class of factories or workshops.

Before 1901 ten certificates as to dangerous trades were issued by the Home Office (*q.v.*), and most of them are now incorporated in the Act of 1901. Since 1901 nineteen sets of regulations have been issued. The processes which are certified as dangerous are :—

Aerated water, bottling of, etc.

Arsenic, extraction of.

Brass, casting of.

Bricks, glazing with use of lead.

Camel hair, sorting, etc.

Chemical works, processes in.
 Docks, loading and unloading at, etc.
 Earthenware and china, manufacture and decoration of.
 Electric accumulators, manufacture of.
 Electricity, use of, in factories.
 Enamelling, vitreous, of metal or glass.
 Explosives, manufacture of (with use of di-nitro-benzol, etc.).
 Felt hats, manufacture of (with aid of inflammable solvent).
 File cutting by hand.
 Flax and tow, spinning and weaving.
 Goat hair, sorting, etc.
 Grinding of metals and racing of grindstones.
 Hemp and jute, spinning and weaving of, etc.
 Hides and skins, sorting foreign.
 Horsehair from China, Siberia, or Russia, use of.
 Indiarubber, vulcanising, etc.
 Lead, red, orange, or yellow.
 Lead, smelting process in.
 Lead, white, manufacture of.
 Mules, self-acting, in process of spinning in textile factories.
 Nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzine, manufacture of, etc.
 Paints and colours, manufacture of.
 Quarries, processes in.
 Tinning of metal articles.
 Transfers, making, in china and earthenware works.
 Wool sorting, etc.
 Yarn, dyed by means of a lead compound, leading of.

In order that the nature of the Home Office rules may be better understood, some details may be given as to those issued in January, 1907, concerning the manufacture of paints and colours, and in August, 1907, concerning the processes of spinning and weaving hemp.

The regulations for paint and colour manufacture are only concerned with factories and workshops in which lead paint is mixed for

sale ; they do not apply to those in which the manufacture of artists' colours or varnish paints is carried on. As is well known, lead processes are dangerous (see LEAD POISONING), and, therefore, the rules are framed for the purpose of preventing the absorption by the worker of lead or lead dust. The first rule, therefore, is that there shall be an efficient exhaust draught and air guide to draw the dust away from the worker, or else that the process of mixing shall be carried on in an apparatus so closed as to prevent the escape of dust. No woman, young person, or child is allowed to be employed in manipulating lead colour. Every person employed in a lead process or at the roller mills for grinding lead colour in oil must be examined once a month by the certifying surgeon (see FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN), who has power to suspend him from employment. The occupier of the factory has to provide overalls (to be washed once a week), a cloak-room, a fully equipped lavatory, and a dining-room for his workers (unless they leave the factory during meal hours). The employees are ordered to wear overalls, which they must keep in the factory, and they must not drink, introduce, prepare, or partake of food or tobacco in the workroom. They must wash their hands on leaving and before partaking of food. Food, drink, and tobacco must not be brought into a room where a lead process is carried on.

The regulations concerning the spinning and weaving of jute, hemp, jute tow, or hemp tow prescribe the permissible limit of carbonic acid in the air, the temperature of the workroom, the means by which dust is to be removed, and the provision of respirators for certain workers.

Enough has been said to show

that the Home Office deals with every dangerous trade separately after special and exhaustive inquiry. As methods of manufacture are constantly changing, this system of dealing with dangerous trades by regulation is probably the best that could be devised. It enables the Home Office to meet efficiently risks and changes when they are realised, but it inevitably interposes a period of delay before the sufferings of the workers attract official attention.

Day Industrial Schools.—(See also HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS and JUVENILE OFFENDERS.) Day industrial schools were established by the Education Act of 1876 for neglected children who fail to attend school, but are not in danger of contamination at home. The schools resemble ordinary elementary schools (*q.v.*), except that simple industrial employment is added to the school work, and that children are sent for if they fail to come, and are washed on arrival. The hours are longer, viz., up to 6 p.m., and attendance generally continues for about two years. At the close of 1909 there were thirteen such schools in England and six in Scotland. The number of schools and the numbers in attendance are declining, the latter figure being 3,269 against 3,365 at the end of 1908. The expenditure in 1909 was £39,973, of which the parents paid £2,241, the average cost per head working out at £12 4s., including £3 4s. for food.

Day Nurseries.—In an ideal state of society there would be no need for a day nursery or crèche. The right place for every married woman is her home, in which she ought to be fully occupied with the care of her children and domestic duties. But industrial conditions compel women to seek work. When the father of a family is out of work, the mother is often compelled to

work in a factory or workshop, in order to maintain the family. In other cases, the wife may have to supplement the small and uncertain wages of her husband by "going out to work" even when she has a young family to care for. The immediate consequence of this has been that infants and young children have been left to the care of neighbours (often known as "mind-ers") or elder children, many of whom, either by negligence or ignorance, have left the child uncared-for. This has caused a terrible waste of life and helped to keep up the high infant mortality (*q.v.*) rate, especially in large manufacturing towns. The day nursery exists to put an end to this evil. Through the day nursery the infant receives skilled attention, under ideal sanitary conditions, from trained workers, while the mother is engaged in her work. With a growing experience of the good work that can be done through day nurseries, with higher ideals of efficiency and better methods of organisation, those who had given time and thought to this subject came together and formed the National Society of Day Nurseries (*q.v.*) in 1907. The work already done by this Society and by other workers will be of great service to all who may take up the work. A short paper, entitled "A Suggested Plan for a Model Crèche," by Dr. B. Myers, published in the *British Journal of Children's Diseases*, of June, 1910, and subsequently reprinted, gives admirable advice on the construction of a day nursery. Dr. Myers says that "the model crèche should be so arranged (a) that the day-nurseries, bath-rooms, etc., for the children's use ought to be on the ground floor; (b) that the kitchen, scullery, larder, pantry, mothers' dining-room, and a laundry room should be situated in the basement; and (c) that the matron's

and nurses' bedroom, sitting-room, etc., could be conveniently placed on the first floor." By means of a diagram of the ground floor, he explains clearly his scheme for a model crèche. *Hints on How to Start a Crèche*, published by the National Society of Day Nurseries, is indispensable to anyone who wishes to do so. It deals with medical inspection of the children; the importance of a central position for the crèche in a district in which there is a demand for women's labour; it advises strict personal investigation to verify the statement that a woman is obliged to work. The matron should be "a trained nurse who has specialised in children's wards," and should have complete control over the staff. Among the simple rules suggested are the following: That the nursery be open for twelve hours on ordinary working days; that the usual charge be 4d. a day; that the age of children received be three weeks to five years; that no child suffering from infectious diseases (*q.v.*) be admitted; that mothers be encouraged to nurse their children. Similar useful suggestions as to furniture and diet are contained in the book, the price of which is 1d. Where it is possible, it is wise to arrange that mothers who visit their babies in the dinner hour may have a meal in the crèche, if this can be provided at a small charge.

Dead, Care of the.—Workers who may, perhaps, be called upon to perform the last offices for the dead in some unforeseen emergency would do well to prepare themselves against the contingency. Two Queen's nurses have published (from 40, Onslow Road, Richmond, Surrey) an admirable little leaflet (1½d.) containing simple instructions for the laying out of the dead. They are specially intended for the untrained person who may find herself unexpectedly called upon to

care for the dead and who has no one at hand to guide her.

Sometimes the welfare of the living may be a cause for more anxiety than the care of the dead. In crowded conditions it may happen that the dead and the living must occupy the same room. If the deceased died of an infectious disease that involves a serious risk. Upon the certificate of a qualified medical practitioner, a magistrate or justice of the peace may order the sanitary authority at their own cost to remove the body to a mortuary. (As to the death of infants in registered homes, see INFANT LIFE PROTECTION.) Under ordinary circumstances, the medical practitioner in attendance will give a certificate stating the cause of death. Someone who was actually present at the time of death must, within five days, take it to the registrar of births, deaths, and marriages, who will give his certificate that the death has been registered, and upon that the burial may take place. In the case of a sudden death, when no medical practitioner has been in attendance or the circumstances suggest that further information is desirable, it is necessary to communicate with the coroner, who will decide whether an inquest is desirable. It is sometimes felt that some stigma may attach to the relations of the deceased owing to the necessity for an inquest. In the case of sudden death, where there is no justification for any such suspicion, the relations may be assured that the coroner will be sympathetic in their misfortune. The necessary preliminary to burial, then, is the coroner's order. If the dead or his relations valued the ministrations of the Church of England, care should be taken to communicate with the incumbent of the parish; and if the burial is to be in a cemetery, endeavour should be

made to secure a grave in consecrated ground. Similarly reference should be made to the minister of any denomination of which the deceased was a member. A little care in becoming acquainted with regulations and approaching authorities with courtesy may secure facilities which might not be gained by the more businesslike procedure of the undertaker. Clergy and ministers should take care to see the registrar's certificate of death, as anyone who takes a funeral without doing so renders himself liable to a heavy fine. Tactful influence may be brought to bear to check the sinful extravagance which is too often a feature of the funerals of the dead, who in their lives barely had the necessities of life. Where the dead or his relations are too poor to bury him, the duty devolves on the Poor Law authorities, whether the death takes place within or without a workhouse, but the relatives probably will think that any sacrifice is not too great to make in order to avoid a pauper funeral. Everyone may claim to be buried by the Church of England, but the Office for the Burial of the Dead may not be read over "any that die unbaptised . . . or have laid violent hands upon themselves." In the case of deceased persons, in a Christian country, their baptism is to be taken for granted, unless there is proof to the contrary; but a clergyman may use his own discretion whether he acts upon the verdict of a coroner's jury, which may be entirely unsupported by evidence. If the dead was temporarily insane, Christian charity requires and the law allows him to have the privilege of Christian burial. Cremation is recognised by the law as a proper method for the disposal of the dead, but its expense places it beyond the reach of those who are not substantially endowed with this world's goods.

Deaf, or Deaf and Dumb.—(See also ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) Dumbness is in 99 per cent. of cases only a consequence of deafness, and the word may fairly be applied to a number of deaf who have only acquired a smattering of speech, and are largely unintelligible to strangers. The term is being wisely retained by societies in aid of the deaf and dumb, in spite of the spread of oral teaching—as there must always be a certain number who cannot acquire a satisfactory amount of speech. There are supposed to be some 20,000 of this class in the United Kingdom who have passed through the schools, and the proportion is about 1 in 1,700. London has more than 3,000. In 1893 an Act was passed making education compulsory for all deaf (as for all blind children) between the ages of seven and sixteen. Grants of £5 5s. per head are made by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) for all the children in the institutions. There are about fifty schools for the deaf in Great Britain, and if private schools are reckoned, about sixty. Such knowledge as is usually required by the social worker may be acquired by consulting the *Annual Charities' Register and Digest* (*q.v.*) (see Index, Deaf and Dumb, at end of the book), and the *Church of England Year Book*. The article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* is also most useful.

The Deaf in Childhood. When deafness has been proved incurable, steps should be taken to place the child in an institution at the age of seven, and it will often be wiser to get the child taken at an earlier age; and there is a tendency now to make from seven to sixteen a minimum rather than a maximum. The poorer classes should communicate usually with the clerk to

the board of guardians or the county education authority, and the child will be sent to an institution when a vacancy occurs, if there is not a day school near to the child's home. Something may be done for deaf children before they go to a school. Cleanly habits, manners, proper methods of feeding and dressing—these they may learn as other children by observation; short conversational, simple phrases may be taught by constant repetition in careful, distinct speech, and even writing may be taught in its elements. A small charge of a shilling or two a week for maintenance expenses is sometimes laid upon parents where it can be borne. The method of instruction is generally oral, and it may be said that all children have now the opportunity of learning to speak and to read the lips of others. Parents will do wisely to leave the head master of a school to settle by what method a child can best be advanced. So much depends upon the sight, length of school period, intelligence, and even the quality of teaching at the head master's disposal, that non-experts should not interfere. Some parents suppose that their children are prodigies, when in point of fact they are sadly afflicted beyond others. A hearty interest in the child's lessons should be taken by those at home, and the teacher's desires strongly reinforced.

Trades for the Deaf. At sixteen the child will leave school more or less well equipped. At school opportunities are usually given for hand and eye training, and often for learning a simple trade, such as bootmaking, tailoring, bookbinding, baking, carpentry, etc., for boys; and girls have usually learned dress or laundry work. The teacher is the one to advise as to the most suitable trade, having the most intimate knowledge of the child's powers.

Higher class trades can sometimes be taught, such as lithography, etching, engraving, photo processes, inlaying, wood carving, stone carving, etc. The After-Care Committee often finds a place for the child; and sometimes it is found by the local missionary or chaplain to the deaf and dumb, and not seldom by the schoolmaster or teacher. The old-fashioned apprenticeship is desirable, and when once a good trade has been learned, little need be feared as to the welfare of the child from an industrial point of view.

The Deaf and Dumb in Adult Life. A certain number of the deaf who have acquired a really useful amount of speech and ability in lip reading do not associate with the general run of the deaf, and have been taught that they must never use finger spelling or signs. The writer's own experience as the son of deaf and dumb parents, and as one of H.M. inspectors of schools for the deaf, and as a chaplain among them for twenty-two years, has made him quite sure that such are usually not very happy, and the more unhappy in proportion, as they assume a fancied superiority over their less educated brethren, and refrain from doing anything to elevate their class by personally mixing with them. There is a social club almost composed of the orally taught, but the existence of such a club is a tacit confession that such find more pleasure in the society of one another than in the society of those who can hear. The vast majority of the deaf, however, in adult life have their own clergy, churches, mission rooms, etc., and frankly refuse to recognise that they should be tied down to any one particular method of expression. The hands and fingers are to them far more eloquent, easily read, and certain than the microscopic movements of the lips and facial muscles.

For public worship and addresses, speech is uncertain and lacking in life, since to them there is no charm of sound, where all has to be read in deadly silence. As a class, the deaf are, however, happy. The charity guides abound in information respecting the provision that exists everywhere for cheering the loneliness of those who dwell in silence in our midst. The deaf marry and intermarry. Comparatively seldom are there deaf offspring. Statistics compiled by the Revd. F. W. G. Gilby show this to be so in probably not more than 7 per cent. of the marriages; but that is bad enough. The alternative of legal prohibition would result in gross immoralities and unthinkable complications.

Death Rate.—(See INFANT MORTALITY and PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS.)

Debt.—(See RECOVERY OF DEBT.)

Decasualisation of Labour.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Deductions.—(See TRUCK ACTS.)

Defective Children.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF, EDUCATION OF CRIPPLES, DEAF, EPILEPTICS, HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, INVALID CHILDREN AID ASSOCIATION and TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES.)

Dental Clinics.—(See SCHOOL CLINICS and TEETH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.)

Deposit Friendly Societies.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES and THRIFT.)

Detention Colonies.—(See ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS, POOR LAW REFORM and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Development Act.—(See also NATIONAL ROAD BOARD, RURAL DEVELOPMENT and SMALL HOLDINGS.) This Act, passed in 1909, gives power to the Treasury to make a grant to loan to county councils (*q.v.*) and other bodies, out of a fund called the

Development Fund on the recommendation of the Development Commissioners for any of the following purposes:—

(a) Aiding and developing agriculture and rural industries by promoting scientific research, instruction and experiments in science, methods and practice of agriculture (including the provision of farm-institutes), the organisation of co-operation, instruction in marketing produce, and the extension of the provision of small holdings (*q.v.*); and by the adoption of any other means which appear calculated to develop agriculture and rural industries;

(b) Forestry (including (1) the conducting of inquiries, experiments, and research for the purpose of promoting forestry and the teaching of methods of afforestation (*q.v.*); (2) the purchase and planting of land found after inquiry to be suitable for afforestation);

(c) The reclamation and drainage of land (see LAND RECLAMATION);

(d) The general improvement of rural transport (including the making of light railways but not including the construction or improvement of roads);

(e) The construction and improvement of harbours;

(f) The construction and improvement of inland navigations;

(g) The development and improvement of fisheries;

and for any other purpose calculated to promote the economic development of the United Kingdom.

For the purposes of this part of this Act the expression "agriculture and rural industries" includes agriculture, horticulture, dairying, the breeding of horses, cattle, and other live stock and poultry, the cultivation of bees, home and

cottage industries, the cultivation and preparation of flax, the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco, and any industries immediately connected with and subservient to any of the said matters. Where money is advanced for any of the above purposes, the Development Commissioners may give power to the county councils to acquire land compulsorily on small holdings terms.

Diocesan Social Service Committees.—During the last twenty-five years the Church of England has slowly roused herself to see that her members are in need of instruction and guidance as to their duty in regard to social service. Becoming more conscious of her corporate existence, she has begun to realise that it is her duty to express and to maintain high ideals as to social service, and to urge both her members and those who are not members to carry these ideals into practice. But as yet, although very many of her members have given themselves to devoted service of the poor, her voice is scarcely heard. Until recently she has had no organised means of expressing the ideals of which she is becoming conscious: she has had no "corporate voice." In various dioceses, at different times, special committees have been appointed to deal with particular social questions, but they have usually ceased to exist when their work was done. For instance, such committees were formed to present a special report from the dioceses of England and Wales to the Royal Commission on the Poor Law dealing with the extent and intensity of poverty and the administration of charitable and Poor Law relief. The experience of these committees and the work which they were able to do has shown that they would be more valuable and effective if they were permanent. The result has been that within the

last few years permanent Social Service Committees have been set up in the dioceses of Winchester, Bath and Wells, Hereford, Lichfield, Oxford, Southwark, and Truro, whilst the machinery for similar committees exists in six other dioceses. The work of such committees necessarily varies according to the conditions and circumstances of the dioceses; but none can afford to forget that their highest work is to maintain the best ideals of social service. Many have found that such ideals are best expressed by practical measures. They have carried out investigation, and collected useful information on various social problems. Some have ventured to express opinions as to how best to overcome acknowledged social evils. But to be of real and lasting service these committees must avoid certain dangers. They should avoid any kind of work that is already better done by other organisations. They should be most careful not to fall into the hands of any political party. At the same time, they need to remember that practical work is of small value if it means the advocacy of measures common to all parties, or of measures so far outside the range of practical politics as to be advocated by no party. As a general rule, such committees will probably be wise if they are careful to avoid that side of practical social service which leads to immediate legislation. They will probably find many opportunities of pressing upon Churchmen the duty of taking part in or supporting all the various kinds of social work which have no immediate connection with legislation. There is so much that may be done, and there are so few Churchmen who admit that they should do anything, that the Social Service Committees have a great opportunity for rousing, stimulating, and guiding the social service of Churchmen.

Committees should, as a rule, be small; and it is important that no one "given to over-much talking" be appointed a member. If these committees can escape from the dangers that beset them, they may become a most valuable means of expression to the Church, whose silence has exposed her to the accusation of indifference.

Usually such committees are formed from diocesan conferences, and in some cases call in others with special knowledge to act as assessors, in order that their work may be efficient. In November, 1910, officers of these committees were invited by the Joint Committee of the Houses of Convocation and of the House of Laymen of Canterbury on the Moral Witness of the Church on Economic Subjects to a conference at Westminster, which was so successful that it was decided to hold similar conferences in the future.

Diphtheria.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES AND NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies.—(See also PRISONERS.) There are fifty-nine "official" Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies in England and Wales, that is to say, that number of voluntary associations have been duly certified by the Secretary of State for Home Affairs as fulfilling the conditions demanded by Government. On this certificate depends the receipt of a "grant in aid" from the public funds. There are only two societies working in direct connection with prisons which do not possess this qualification (Wiltshire and Lancaster D.P.A.S.). Two other societies which do an enormous amount of work amongst ex-prisoners—the St. Giles' Christian Mission and the Salvation Army (*q.v.*)—are also uncertified, although officially recognised. There are also numerous agencies in existence which afford help

to the same class of persons in various ways. The conditions essential to obtaining a certificate from the Home Office (*q.v.*) are roughly: (1) A committee elected from the visiting justices to the prison and charitable persons resident in the district; (2) the employment of an agent; (3) the publication annually of properly audited accounts which have been presented to and accepted by a public meeting of the subscribers; (4) the election of all officers of the society at the annual meeting; (5) the careful expenditure of every prisoner's "gratuity" (*i.e.*, the sum earned by him for good conduct whilst undergoing his sentence—which in local prisons varies from 1d. to 10s.) The Government grant is calculated at 6d. per head, on the number of prisoners discharged from the gaol during the year previous to that in which the grant is paid. In 1909 a small prison discharged 1,000 prisoners, and was, therefore, entitled to receive in 1910 a sum of £25; and a large prison discharging 12,000 prisoners, earned £300. The full sum, however, is not paid unless an *equal amount* is collected from the public locally. Moreover, all claims for this sum must be supported by vouchers proving that the money had been actually expended upon discharged prisoners and not upon "office" or other establishment charges. A D.P.A.S. balance sheet, therefore, shows at least three sources of income, Government grant, gratuities, and local subscriptions, etc. In 1908 the total income of all certified societies amounted to over £24,000, made up as follows: Local sources, £16,489; grant in aid, £3,393; gratuities, £4,179.

Like prisoners, the Aid Societies are divided into two classes: one working with local prisoners, the other with convicts. The former

are the more numerous, and will be dealt with first. They are managed by a committee, which may consist of any number of members (usually about 20-30). This committee meets once a month, generally at the prison, to consider applications for assistance, etc. The real work, however, is practically done by a small sub-committee, which in some cases meets daily. Its work consists in carefully investigating the case of every prisoner who asks for help. His criminal record, prison character, general antecedents, and trade or calling are all inquired into. A decision is then made, and he is entered as worthy or unworthy of assistance, as the case may be. Should he be deemed worthy, it is then decided what kind of help he shall receive. In the great majority of cases work on discharge is the one *desideratum*, although a great number can be efficiently helped by gifts of suitable clothing, tools, etc., to enable them to do work which they themselves can obtain from their former employers. Whenever it is decided that work must be found for an individual, the agent (or agents, for some societies employ a large number, one for each town or district in the "committing" area) is directed to do his best to procure it. If he prove successful, the prisoner is fitted out and supported until he can draw his first wage. The balance sheets of the various societies show that the chief items of expenditure are clothing, working tools, sea kits, board, lodging, fares by sea or rail, and stock for pedlars; cash is rarely given. A considerable sum is spent on agents, as through them nearly all the work is found and the subsequent career of those aided supervised. A system of employing agents without a fixed salary is springing up; social workers in any district are gladly employed to look

after a case, and a small honorarium is given. Societies are always glad to hear from persons willing to assist them in finding work and looking after individual cases. Every society aims at finding remunerative work for discharged prisoners, so that the temptation to fall back into crime may be minimised. Several thousand (over 8,000 in 1908) men and women are annually assisted in this manner, and the majority justify the expenditure of time and money on their behalf by keeping clear of gaol in the future. A large proportion of the applicants are habitual vagrants and drunkards, and most societies sternly refuse assistance to such cases. Be it noted, however, that a considerable number of genuine workmen on tramp can be, and are, practically helped by finding them employment. Some societies are, of course, better than others, and work on a better system, but an effort is now being made to provide an opportunity whereby representatives of all of them may meet quarterly, compare notes, and gradually assimilate their methods.

Discharged convicts have hitherto selected one of the following societies, recognised by the Home Office (*q.v.*) as convict Aid Societies: Church Army (*q.v.*), Royal Aid, St. Giles' Mission, Salvation Army (*q.v.*), Catholic Prisoners' Aid, and the United Synagogue Prisoners' Aid. In January, 1911, a new system was introduced by which the case of every convict is considered by a central association. Through that association a convict is assigned to any special society for which he may express a preference, or his case is undertaken independently of any society. An agent of the central association visits each prison from time to time to see each convict near his discharge, and is allowed to interview him without the presence of any prison

official. Preparations for discharge commence immediately after conviction, the governor and chaplain making a study of the character and disposition of each prisoner from the day of his admission. Before 1911 no "grant in aid" was made to societies dealing with convicts, as their gratuities have been much larger than those earned by local prisoners; but, the central associations have considerable funds placed at their disposal. The rules governing the ticket-of-leave system have been modified, so that a discharged convict, so long as he behaves straightforwardly, is not compelled to report himself once a month to the police during the entire period of his remission (see PRISONERS).

Social workers who come across a discharged prisoner and are anxious to know something of his antecedents and of what has been done for him, should find out the *name* under which he was convicted, the *prison* he was discharged from, and the *date* of his conviction. A letter addressed to the Secretary of the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society at the discharging prison should procure him the necessary information, and, in promising cases, assistance in placing him in a better position. If a promise of work can be made, most societies are willing to expend a little money.

Diseases of School Children.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES, HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS, SCHOOL CLINICS and SCHOOL DOCTORS.) The following diseases are most likely to occur among school children:—

Nose and Throat. Enlarged tonsils and adenoids are found in about 8 or 10 per cent. of school children. Among other defects, occurring with some frequency, are

polypi, nasal discharge, catarrh, and enlargement of the lymphatic glands about the head and neck, this last being often due to carious teeth, a verminous condition of the head, anæmia, or more rarely to tuberculosis.

Eye. The defects most frequently found are sore eyelids, conjunctivitis and inflammation of the cornea, due to uncleanness. About 10 per cent. suffer from defective vision. Of blindness among elementary school children, about 40 per cent. is caused by "ophthalmia neonatorum," due to neglect in the first week of birth.

Ear. The most common disease is chronic suppurative discharge (sometimes due to scarlet fever), which is estimated to affect one child in every sixty, and, if untreated, leads to deafness. Defective hearing is found in about 5 per cent. of school children.

Ringworm. This is very prevalent, though no exact figures are obtainable. The prolonged absence from school of weeks or months which it necessitates under the treatment usually given inflicts great hardship, especially on promising children. It should be treated by X-rays, which, though costly in single cases, is relatively cheap for a large number, and effects a cure in four to six weeks.

Heart. A certain number of children, especially "boy scouts" and children who have been taking violent physical exercise without the necessary previous training, are found to suffer from cardiac enlargement. Rheumatic valvular disease and rheumatic myocarditis are not uncommon. These children require a great deal of rest in bed, and the parents should be advised accordingly.

Phthisis, Tuberculosis, and Lung Disease. Phthisis is not found to any large extent among children

under fifteen; about 5 per cent. is an approximate figure. Medical examination of "entrants" and "leavers" only at the elementary schools discloses 1.02 cases of tuberculosis; but it is believed that this figure is really too low. Tubercular glands are present in about 20 per cent. of tuberculous school children. Bronchitis and bronchial catarrh are very common, and bronchiectasis and fibrosis are of fairly frequent occurrence, and are sometimes mistaken for tuberculosis.

Disinfection.—(See also INFECTIOUS DISEASES.) Disinfection is the process of destroying the germs of infectious disease. The chief disinfectants are heat, air, and sunlight, and various organic and inorganic chemical products, such as carbolic acid, corrosive sublimate, etc. Substances like boric acid, which stop or hinder the growth of microbes without killing them outright, are called antiseptics. Deodorants, such as tobacco smoke, which simply mask offensive smells, are often wrongly thought to be disinfectants. After certain infectious diseases, as smallpox and scarlet fever, disinfection is usually carried out by the sanitary authority, and must be, if the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) or any medical practitioner certifies that it is necessary. The process varies in different towns, but the commonest practice is (1) to fumigate the sick room with burning sulphur or volatilising formaldehyde, after stopping up all openings which allow access of air; (2) to remove bedding, curtains, clothes, and other movable articles for subjection to superheated steam; (3) to supply corrosive sublimate solution or other disinfectant for use in the home. A more thorough process than fumigation is to spray the walls of the room and articles in it with a liquid such as formalin by means of a sprayer. If such processes are

thoroughly carried out, infection is not likely to be communicated by the air or articles in the sick room. But it must be remembered that the chief sources of infection are persons, whether sick, convalescents, or "contacts" apparently well, and that it is not easy to disinfect them. It is a mistake to place too much trust in disinfection and disinfectants. It is useless to attempt to disinfect the air, which can always be renewed by opening doors and windows. A bad smell is not usually to be dealt with by a disinfectant, but by discovering and removing the cause. Drains (see DRAINAGE) should be flushed with water, not disinfected. (For further information, see *Disinfection and Disinfectants*, by S. Rideal.)

Dispensaries.—(See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM and PROVIDENT DISPENSARIES.)

Disposals from Home Office Schools.—In recent years the reformatory and industrial school authorities have realised that the question of disposal and after-supervision is one of the most important in connection with their work, whether the inmates serve the full term of their commitment or whether they are released on licence, as is the case when their conduct at school has been satisfactory, and good work has been found to which they may be sent. So far as possible, no boy or girl is allowed to leave without work to go to, but as the work is often found by relatives or friends, the mistake of putting too much faith in their assurances and allowing a child to return to a thoroughly bad and vicious environment has not infrequently been made, with the result that the job provided is soon lost, and the years of careful training in the school rendered ineffective. The increased care now being

given to disposal is responsible for more satisfactory results during the last few years, but the law needs strengthening if a certain amount of the work of the schools is not to be nullified by the influence of bad parents. It is found that much may be effected by visiting the parents at intervals for some time before their children's discharge, the influence of the mother being commonly so paramount that all is gained if she can be persuaded to use it for good. There are, however, homes where no amount of persuasion can effect improvement, and to which it is utterly unfitting for any boy or girl to return. The Home Office School (*q.v.*) system will never be satisfactory until power is given to refuse such parents their present right to the custody of their children when discharged.

Efforts are always made to place lads out at the same occupations at which they have been engaged in the schools, but this is frequently found very difficult to accomplish. It is estimated, however, that about 88 per cent. of the boys and rather more of the girls are sent, when they leave, to skilled occupations, at which they can hope for steady advancement and increase of wages. Many of the schools have excellent Old Boys' Homes, in which homeless boys, who cannot at first earn sufficient to maintain themselves in comfort and respectability, may reside at low charges.

Periods of depression in trade, of course, make disposal more difficult, and tend to have an adverse effect on the results, though every effort is made to keep old boys at work. It is remarkable and of serious import that there has been a great decrease in the numbers who leave the schools and training ships to go to sea, the reason apparently being the displacement of British by foreign labour in the Mercantile

Marine. Several of the training ships have felt it incumbent upon them to provide workshops on shore to give the boys instruction which will fit them for ordinary industrial life. Meanwhile the numbers of boys who join the Army or go to work on farms or in mines are increasing. Of 12,394 boys who left the Reformatory and Industrial Schools in 1905, 1906, and 1907, at the end of 1908 2,005 were in the Army, 295 in the Royal Navy or Marines, 690 in the Merchant Service, 1,663 were engaged in farm work, 909 were labourers, and 756 were miners. The subsequent careers of 596 were unknown, mainly owing to the failure on the part of certain schools to exercise sufficient supervision over lads who had left. There is no reason to doubt that many of these are doing well. 896 had suffered convictions, for the most part for not very serious offences, but highly regrettable, since a single visit to prison often proves a lad's ruin. In the majority of cases such convictions are distinctly traceable to the inadequacy of the after-control permissible to the school authorities, for it is certain that a large proportion of the ex-Home Office School lads who now find their way to the police court, bad material as they have been on committal to the schools, would keep straight on discharge were they prevented from returning to their former evil surroundings. To combat the difficulty, the London County Council (*q.v.*) some years ago established an agency in South Wales to provide work at a safe distance from bad homes for boys trained for farm work in the industrial schools under its authority.

The Roman Catholic Schools find it specially hard to dispose satisfactorily of their old boys owing to their endeavour to place them where they will experience no

difficulty in the continued performance of their religious duties.

Of the girls, the majority enter domestic service, for which they receive an excellent training; but some who show special aptitude are assisted to follow such occupations as dressmaking, teaching, and type-writing (see TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

In 1908 146 boys and 76 girls were emigrated to the Colonies, the greater number to Canada (see COLONISATION).

Distress.—(a) *How Distress may be Levied.* Distress is a right which a landlord is entitled to exercise without having recourse to any legal proceedings. It may, in general, be levied for six years' arrears of rent. It may be levied either by the landlord in person or by a certificated bailiff on his behalf. A bailiff usually carries an authority from the landlord known as a distress warrant, but this is not essential, and its absence does not invalidate the distress. Distress must be made between sunrise and sunset. The outer door of the premises must not be broken open, but the distrainer may open a door or enter through an open window. The goods distrained may be either removed or impounded on the premises. A written notice containing an inventory of the goods distrained must be left with the tenant. The goods are then held for five days as a pledge, and may during that time be recovered by the tenant on payment of arrears of rent and the costs of the distress. After the five days (which are exclusive of the days on which the distraint and the sale are made) have elapsed, and, unless the tenant requests the landlord in writing to extend the period to fifteen days, the goods are sold, and any surplus remaining after payment of arrears of rent and costs is returned to the tenant.

Where the amount of rent due is

less than £20, the costs of a distress are, in general, as follows:—

- (1) Levying distress, 3s.
- (2) Man in possession, 4s. 6d. per day.

(3) Reasonable expenses of removal.

(4) A commission of 1s. in the pound on the net produce of the sale.

Where excessive costs are charged treble the amount so taken may be recovered before a magistrate.

(b) *When Distress may be Levied.*

Distress may be levied as soon as rent is in arrear. No previous demand is necessary, but a tender of the arrears of rent may be made by the tenant to the distrainer, and, if refused, a subsequent distress for such rent is illegal.

(c) *Where Distress may be Levied.*

Distress may in general only be levied on goods found on the premises let to the tenant. If the tenant removes his goods before distress is made the landlord is not entitled to follow them unless the removal is either fraudulent (*i.e.*, made with intent to elude distress) or clandestine, in which case the landlord may seize the goods within 30 days, provided they have not in the meantime been sold *bona fide* to any person not privy to the fraud. This right of seizure attaches only to goods belonging to the tenant himself. The landlord has the further remedy in such cases of suing the tenant and persons knowingly assisting him for double the value of the goods.

(d) *What Goods may be Distrainted.* The following are the most important exceptions to the rule that all goods found on the premises (whether belonging to the tenant or not) are liable to distress:—

(1) Fixtures (including fixtures which the tenant is at liberty to remove).

(2) Goods delivered to a person in the way of his trade, *e.g.*, boots sent to a bootmaker to be repaired.

(3) Things in actual use.

(4) Wearing apparel and bedding (*i.e.*, bedclothes and bedstead) of the tenant or his family, and the tools of his trade up to the value of £5. The total value of wearing apparel, bedding, and tools is to be included in this calculation.

(5) Things exempt under the Law of Distress Amendment Act, 1908 (see below).

(6) Water, gas, and electric meters and fittings.

Tools of trade not coming within the exception (4) mentioned above are conditionally privileged (*i.e.*, they may not be taken if there are other goods on the premises of sufficient value to answer the distress).

By the Law of Distress Amendment Act, 1908 (amending the Lodgers' Goods Protection Act, 1871), any under-tenant who pays rent weekly, monthly, or quarterly, or any lodger or other person having no interest in the tenancy is entitled to serve the superior landlord or bailiff levying distress with a declaration that the goods distrained or threatened to be distrained are the property or in the lawful possession of such under-tenant, lodger, or other person; an inventory accurately describing such goods must be annexed to the declaration; and in the case of an under-tenant or lodger the declaration must contain a statement of the amount of rent (if any) due, and the times when instalments of rent become due, together with an undertaking to pay such rent to the superior landlord. If any rent is actually due, it must be tendered to the superior landlord at the time when the declaration and inventory are served. Any rent paid in accordance with such undertaking may be deducted from the amount payable to the under-tenant's or lodger's immediate landlord. If after these requirements have been fulfilled the

goods are seized, they may be recovered by application to a magistrate or two justices, and the landlord is also liable to an action for damages.

The Act does not apply to the following classes of goods amongst others:—

(1) Goods belonging to the husband or wife of the tenant.

(2) Goods comprised in any bill of sale granted by, or hire-purchase agreement or settlement made by, the tenant.

(e) *Remedies of Tenant in Case of Wrongful Distress.*

(1) Wearing apparel, bedding, and tools exempted as above-mentioned may be recovered by the tenant upon application to a magistrate or justices.

(2) Where the tenant occupies a house within the Metropolitan police district on a weekly or monthly tenancy, or on a yearly tenancy, the rent of which does not exceed £15, a magistrate may, upon proof that an unlawful, excessive, or irregular distraint has been made, order the goods so distrained to be returned to the tenant upon his paying the rent owing, or, if the goods are sold, their value after deducting such rent.

(3) If goods are distrained when no rent is owing, the tenant is entitled to recover double their value. Proceedings must be taken in the High Court.

(4) If the distress is otherwise illegal, excessive, or irregular, an action for damages may be brought in the High Court or the County Court, according to the amount claimed. (See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.)

Distress Committees.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

District Auditors.—(See ACCOUNTS AUDIT.)

District Medical Officers.—(See MEDICAL RELIEF.)

District Nursing.—(See also

HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, MIDWIVES, ROYAL BRITISH NURSES' ASSOCIATION, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and VILLAGE NURSING.) The nursing of the poor in their own homes is now a subject of national interest and importance, and great are the developments which have taken place in this branch of nursing in recent years.

It was in Liverpool, in 1859, that the first organised system of trained district nursing was established by Mr. William Rathbone, though some earlier efforts had been made in London, beginning with the Society of St. John's House in 1848. The East London Nursing Society, established in 1868, and now affiliated to the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute (*q.v.*), was the first Association in London formed solely for district nursing. The nursing branch of the London Bible Women's and Nurses' Mission (now known as the "Ranyard Nurses") was started the same year by Mrs. Ranyard. Their present address is 25, Russell Square, London, W.C.

In 1874 the Metropolitan and National Association was formed. This Association, realising some of the wide possibilities of the work, felt the importance of their trained nurses being educated women. A centre was established in Bloomsbury Square, where the nurses lived under the superintendence of Miss Lees (Mrs. Dacre Craven); here nurses with hospital training received their training and instruction for district work. Other similar homes were established in London and the provinces.

In 1887 Queen Victoria decided to use £70,000 of the gift of the women of England to her on the occasion of her Jubilee to develop the work of district nursing; this resulted in the formation of the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute. A provisional committee was formed

and a beginning was made in London through the Metropolitan and National Association, which affiliated with the institute, as did also the majority of other existing associations, including Liverpool, Manchester, and Glasgow. Since that date the work has grown to really vast dimensions, as will be seen by the large number of nurses working in connection with the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute alone.

Most District Nursing Associations are managed by a local committee and are supported by voluntary contributions, though in some localities they are partially worked on provident lines. The nurse receives a fixed salary, the amount varying with the Association by which she was trained and under which she works, rising from about £25 or £30 to £35, £40, or £45. In addition to this, she is provided with board, lodging, uniform, and laundry expenses.

The nurse lives either under a superintendent in a central home provided by the committee, or in districts where only one or two nurses are engaged, and where there is no home, lodgings are provided. Her services can be obtained through the doctor in attendance on the patient or by application to the nurse herself; and every well organised Association has a store of linen and nursing appliances for lending to the patients as occasion requires.

For the nurse who wishes to take up this branch of work, it is absolutely necessary that, in addition to her three years' hospital training, she should receive some training in the nursing of the sick poor in their own homes (usually for a period of six months). During this time the nurse is provided with board and lodging and a small salary. She has to carry out skilled treatment under very different conditions to those to which she has been accustomed in

the hospital wards, and often with an absence of the most ordinary home necessities. She has to teach the people the value of fresh air and cleanliness in their homes, and it is important that she should have some knowledge of domestic matters, including sick cookery. She will meet with cases of poverty, distress, and destitution, and will be confronted with many problems and difficulties; and though the giving of relief should never be undertaken by the nurse, yet a general knowledge of other social work and of the various agencies which may be applied to for relief and for helping the poor will be of much service to her. Of all this she will gain some insight in the course of the district training.

The nurses' work consists in visiting the patients once or more daily as they may need, doing all that she can for their comfort, and carrying out the directions of the doctor. She teaches the friends how to keep the room in nursing order, and how to act in her absence with regard to the nursing. She is constantly coming in contact with cases of tuberculosis, and is frequently able to give instructions in the measures necessary to prevent the spread of this disease (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION).

The nurse, in addition to her definite nursing duties, endeavours to instruct mothers who come under her influence in the care of their infants, and in the right feeding of their children, and to set before them the value of thrift (*q.v.*), self-help, and temperance. In some places the committees also arrange with the education authorities for the nurse to undertake the school nursing, on payment of a grant to the local Association.

The district nurse has exceptional opportunities of entering into the family lives of the poor, and her influence is often felt long after her

nursing services are ended. A high standard of character is, therefore, needed successfully to carry out the work; and the ideal and truly successful district nurse will surely be one whose own life is lived in close dependence upon God, and who ever remembers that they are His sick ones whom she is called upon to tend. Difficulties and disappointments there will always be, but these will be far outweighed by the joys to be found in this work.

District Schools.—(See CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.)

District Visiting.—The district visitor was the forerunner of the large army of friendly visitors who are to-day sent out by public bodies and voluntary societies to diagnose, watch, and care for their "*Cases*." The distinctive merits of the district visitor all centre round the fact that those she visits are not "*cases*" and never have been. Illness, trouble, misbehaviour are all incidents in the lives of her friends; they are not the *raison d'être* of her acquaintance with them. She can keep a fresher mind than a more professional visitor, and her dealings will be more simple and natural. She often prevents people from becoming cases, for she is in a position to observe the beginnings of moral and physical evil. She can comfort by her companionship lonely people whose friends have departed from them, and she may brighten their lives here by helping them to live with the next world more in view. With younger people she plays a part much like that of a good aunt, and may be a sisterly friend to a mother bound to home by the care of a large family. As her work is concentrated upon one small area, she can gain a much deeper knowledge of the poor than the worker who visits isolated cases, and if she keeps to her post for many years she becomes well known

and has far-reaching influence for good.

Such a worker might also have great influence in the administration of charity if she would exert it.

If instead of giving relief herself she would co-operate with the District Committee of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), or other local relief committee (see PAROCHIAL RELIEF COMMITTEES) for her district, she could be the means of strengthening and humanising its work to an unlimited extent. Much of the inquiry made by relief committees may be saved if a good district visitor will make a full and frank disclosure of the circumstances of a case whenever she can honourably do so. Her advice is invaluable when the method of assistance has to be decided upon, and her established friendship with the applicant will incline him to receive the suggestions made for his remedy in a right spirit. Her religious work will make her patient with moral and intellectual weakness, and thus enable her to make use of information brought to light by inquiry into a case. She will, for instance, watch unsatisfactory cases to see if they take a turn which will make them helpable at a later date, and give the constant supervision necessary when the victims of intemperance are trying to break away from the bondage under which they have fallen. She can keep an eye on the cases which have been left to the care of the Poor Law guardians, and report when it is desirable to make some suggestion to the relieving officer (*q.v.*) or the guardians, and she can do something to uphold ideals of morality in her district.

The district visitor does not hold as high repute as one would wish. Many doctors regard her as a "meddler," while social workers

often consider that she hinders rather than helps public agencies in their efforts to improve the conditions of the poor.

The respectable working man will often despise her as an ignorant and futile person, and she lowers the Church in his eyes by the methods she uses to induce his family to attend religious services.

The shortcomings of the district visitor at her worst go far towards outweighing her many merits. She often lives too much in one street, and thinks of its inhabitants as her property; she has too small an outlook, and is apt to upset the plans of others for the welfare of her district by not being able to appreciate them. Her knowledge of public bodies and philanthropic agencies comes through the gossip in the street, and this causes her to estimate her colleagues uncharitably and to spread wrong information regarding the rules they work under. She has the misfortune to be handicapped by a bad history of dole-giving in the past.

The ideal district visitor is a real friend and spiritual influence in her streets and a hearty comrade to her official colleagues in the borough. The bad district visitor is worthless when she does no actual harm.

The striking contrast between the good and bad district visitor should arouse vicars to take greater care both in the selection and training of their workers. No woman should be accepted as a district visitor until she has shown in her private life the qualities which make for friendship. A woman who is free to do parish work because she is no use to her relations, is too undisciplined to learn, and is bored because she has no friends, will not make a good district visitor.

A good district visitor is sometimes spoiled by beginning work in a slum district. By constantly

visiting the abnormal poor, she is apt to get a distorted view of the lives of the working classes and of their domestic economy. It is far better to begin in a street in which a disreputable family or one which is chronically poor is regarded by the neighbours as exceptional, and judged accordingly.

No one can be an ideal district visitor until she has had experience, and, therefore, time would not be lost if the beginner worked at first for some outside organisation, when she could learn the ropes of social work, test her willingness for disciplined labour, and obtain a sense of comradeship with other social workers.

Dividing Societies.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES AND THIEFT.)

Divorce.—(See also HUSBAND AND WIFE.) In November, 1909, a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the state of the law and the administration thereof in divorce and matrimonial causes and applications for separation orders, especially with regard to the position of the poorer classes. The primary cause of the appointment of the Commission was an influential proposal to extend the jurisdiction in divorce to the county courts. The plausible contention was put forth that one law for the rich and another for the poor is unjust. Proceedings for a divorce, even if taken *in forma pauperis*, probably cost £30. The evidence taken before the Commission, however, has shown that many best qualified to speak on behalf of "the poorer classes" are not prepared to say that they desire the extension of a liberty which they do not regard with favour. Whatever may be the outcome of the Commission's deliberations, the expense of the existing law renders unnecessary here any detailed account of its provisions.

"Doffers." (See BOY LABOUR and CHILD LABOUR, II.)

Domestic Employment of School Children.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Dolls, Manufacture of.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Domestic Economy.—(See also PERSONAL HEALTH.) It is compulsory by regulations issued by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) for all public elementary schools (*q.v.*) in England to teach girls some branch of domestic economy. With special sanction of the Board, boys over twelve years of age, in seaport towns, may be registered in a cookery class. The younger girls in the schools are taught needlework and knitting, needlework being taught to secure a practical knowledge of sewing, cutting out, and making ordinary garments, together with mending and darning. Girls over eleven years of age receive a practical training in cookery, laundry work, and housewifery, except where circumstances render this impossible. These three subjects are taught, as far as possible, in relation to each other and with reference to the surroundings of the children. The time devoted to domestic economy is one half day every week by each child registered for the course.

Courses in Combined Domestic Subjects are arranged for the children, in which they take a course of cookery, laundry work, and housewifery successively for three years, the work of each year being more advanced than that of the previous year. These subjects, combining, as they do, handwork and mental effort, develop the constructive and mechanical faculties of the scholars and also greatly stimulate their general intelligence.

Domestic economy is also taught in the London County Council's evening continuation classes, the syllabus of which is more general than that given below. The following subjects are those which come

under the heading of domestic economy: Cookery, laundry, housewifery, dressmaking, millinery, first aid, home nursing, and infant care. These subjects are also taught in the clubs of the London Working Girls' Club Unions (see GIRLS' CLUBS).

Cookery. The cookery syllabus is arranged on three incomes, the one used being most suitable for the needs of the immediate neighbourhood.

The First Year's Syllabus covers the elementary principles of cooking, cleaning the necessary cooking utensils of the home, and the management of the kitchen and gas stove.

The Second Year's Syllabus includes the management of the income, hints on marketing, keeping household accounts, re-heating cooked food, how to economise in the kitchen, and the preparation of invalid food.

The Third Year's Syllabus has many interesting and useful lessons, such as the care of the safe, preservation of food and vegetarian diets. The cooking is based upon the processes taught in previous years, with more difficult combinations.

Cookery Scholarships. The London County Council (*q.v.*) award scholarships to domestic servants on the result of a competitive examination in plain cookery. The girls must be between the ages of seventeen and twenty-five years, and must have been in some branch of domestic service for at least one year previous to the examination. Full particulars are given on application to the Education Officer of the London County Council. These scholarships are tenable only at the National Training School of Cookery (*q.v.*). At some schools an "open day" is held occasionally, when parents are invited to

inspect the school and the children at their work.

Laundry. The First Year's Laundry Syllabus covers elementary rules for washing different materials cost, care, and cleaning laundry utensils; also mending before and after washing.

The Second Year's Syllabus takes more advanced rules, such as the renovation of chintz and cretonne, the removal of stains; also the care of infants as regards suitable clothing, bathing, and dressing.

The Third Year's Syllabus embraces many practical lessons, such as cleaning felt and straw hats, renovating fur and astrachan. A long course of laundry work also includes lessons on hygiene, first aid, and home nursing.

Housewifery. The children in the housewifery courses are taught the choice, cost, care, and cleaning of everything used in the home. Other lessons are how to make the best of the income, care of infants as regards suitable feeding and personal hygiene. Household sewing, invalid cooking, and home nursing are subjects which have several useful lessons devoted to them.

Domestic Factories and Workshops.—(See also FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.) The regulations relating to employment (see FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN) do not apply to factories and workshops where only members of the same family are employed. In such places the following rules hold good: Young persons—Hours from 6 a.m. to 9 p.m., and on Saturday from 6 a.m. to 4 p.m., with four and a half hours off daily and on Saturday two and a half. Children—Hours, 6 a.m. to 1 p.m., or 1 p.m. to 8 p.m., and 4 p.m. on Saturday. These periods must be changed weekly, commencing every Saturday. A child must not be employed continuously for more

than five hours without half an hour's interval for meals. The rules as to certificates of fitness for employment, meal-times (see FACTORIES, MEALS IN), holidays (see FACTORY HOLIDAYS), notices of accidents (see FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN), affixing notices and abstracts (*q.v.*), and means of ventilation do not apply. The rules as to dangerous trades (*q.v.*) apply to those trades when carried on in domestic factories and workshops. Where straw plaiting, pillow lace-making, and glove-making are carried on in a private house or room by the family dwelling therein, the Act does not apply, and the same is true for other occupations carried on at irregular intervals and not furnishing the principal means of living to the family.

Domestic Service.—(See DOMESTIC ECONOMY AND TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Door-Boys.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Drainage.—Drains are channels or pipes which carry off waste water and sewage. The term is usually distributed under the three heads of pipes, drains proper, and sewers. Soil pipes connect the water closet, and waste pipes connect sinks, lavatories, and baths with the house drain. Yard gullies and rain-water pipes are connected to the same. The house drain carries the waste water and excreta to the public sewer, which usually runs under the road and carries the sewage to the sea, river, sewage farm, or other place, where it is dealt with and finally disposed of.

Drains should be made of smooth, glazed earthenware pipes, well pointed with cement, and laid evenly on a concrete bed with sufficient fall. They should be properly ventilated, and every main house drain should have an inspection pit or manhole, where its working can be observed and an

obstruction cleared. It should also be disconnected from the sewer by means of a syphon trap. Any house in London within 100 ft. of a public sewer must, on demand, be drained into it; failing the provision of a sewer, it will probably be drained into a cesspool.

Drains may be tested by forcing smoke into them or by seeing if they will hold water. Escape of the smoke or leaking away of the water indicates a defect. New drains and drains under buildings should always stand the water test, but for old drains it is usual to be satisfied with the smoke test. If any nuisance (*q.v.*) is complained of, the staff of the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) will examine the drains and see that they are in proper condition. Otherwise a private sanitary engineer should be consulted. All waste pipes should open in the air over a properly trapped gully, and should not be directly connected to the drain.

A cesspool is a pit for sewage, waste water, or filth. Where no sewer is available, the choice lies between a pail or earth closet, and a water closet with drain to a cesspool. Any kind of privy or ash-midden is to be condemned. Even if an earth closet is provided, a cesspool is necessary for slop water and liquid sewage. A cesspool should have water-tight walls and bottom, or the sewage will impregnate the ground and may contaminate some water supply. It should be properly covered and ventilated, and situated at least 50 ft. from any dwelling and 80 ft. from any water supply. The water of a well situated near a cesspool should not be used without first boiling it. The great trouble about a cesspool is the necessity of frequent emptying, which is a consequence of its being water-tight. In London the sanitary authority

is responsible for this emptying. In country places, where there is no sewer and not sufficient water supply, and when there is a fair-sized garden or cultivated land pertaining to the house, an earth closet is the best substitute for a water closet. A small, movable receptacle is placed beneath the closet seat. The receptacle is accessible from outside by a movable flap in the wall of the closet. Clean, dry earth is thrown on the excreta by automatic delivery from a hopper every time the closet is used. If there is no apparatus for this, the earth may be applied by hand. Dry garden mould is the best thing to use. If properly applied, it renders the excreta quite odourless and innocuous. Slop water, however, has still to be provided for, and this is usually done by providing a cesspool. Earth closets need to be frequently charged with earth, and this is too often neglected. They are also more liable to get out of order than water closets. The floor of the closet should be concreted and regularly cleansed. (See also *Manual of Practical Hygiene*, Parkes, E.A.)

Draughtsmanship.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Dressmaking.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Drunkenness, Law Relating to.—There is no legal definition of the word "drunk," and, therefore, there is some difficulty in administering the law on the subject. By the Licensing Act, 1872, "every person found drunk in any highway or other public place, whether a building or not, or on any licensed premises," is liable to a penalty. But the conviction depends upon the view taken by the magistrate of the meaning of the word "drunk." The Licensing Act, 1902, does not permit a man to be arrested if he is merely drunk, but, in addition, he must be "incapable of taking care

of himself." A man in a somewhat excited condition and smelling of drink may appear to be drunk when he is simply ill. Great care is exercised by the inspector in the charge-room at the police station, who usually sends to the divisional surgeon in order that he may have medical opinion (see also BAIL). The prisoner is also entitled to ask for the attendance of his own medical man, and both may be called upon to give evidence before the magistrate.

The law both in the letter and the administration is naturally more severe upon the man whose offence is not directed only against his own well-being, but may endanger the welfare of others. Thus the number of apprehensions for drunkenness with aggravating circumstances is nearly double the number for drunkenness alone. Besides the common charge of riotous and disorderly behaviour, there are two offences, in relation to children, which aggravate the offence. The first is when a drunken person is in charge of a child under seven years of age in any public place, and the second is when an infant under three years of age has been suffocated by overlaying, and it is proved that the person concerned "was at the time of going to bed under the influence of drink."

The law also recognises the danger arising from any person being drunk "while in charge, on any highway or other public place, of any carriage, horse, cattle, or steam engine," or who is drunk when "in possession of any loaded firearms."

A drunken person must not be on licensed premises (see PUBLIC HOUSES), not even when drink is not being sold to him. The holder of the licence is the person to be punished for permitting him to be there.

Dying.—(See HOMES FOR THE DYING.)

Education. The foundation of the elementary school (*q.v.*) system of the country may be traced to the efforts of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, shortly after its constitution in 1698, to erect schools "for the instruction of such poor children in reading, writing, and in the Catechism, whose parents, or relations, are not able to afford them the ordinary means of education." A further impetus towards a national system of education was given by the Sunday School (*q.v.*) movement at the end of the century, though that was primarily intended to further religious instruction. With the opening of the nineteenth century began the conflict between Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster, both as to the merits of their methods of education, and the claim of each to be a pioneer. The Lancasterian Society, known afterwards as the British and Foreign School Society, was founded in 1808 to put into practice Lancaster's view that education should not be associated with any particular religious body. The National Society was founded in 1811 as an offshoot of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge for the purpose of establishing schools belonging to the Church. It was not until some years later that the State took an active part in assisting elementary education. In 1833 the Government made the first annual Parliamentary grant, which was assigned to the two societies for distribution. In 1839 a committee of the Privy Council was created to administer the Government grants to education. The report of the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, which sat from 1858 to 1861, led to important changes in the method of making grants. The conscience clause was introduced by the Committee of Council's regulations in 1863 and

met with much opposition. Soon after began the long series of efforts to establish a State system of elementary education, which was finally accomplished in Mr. Forster's Act of 1870. The Act was only intended to supplement the existing provision for elementary education, and for that purpose authorised the formation of school boards for districts where there was a deficiency. The famous Cowper-Temple clause was an amendment moved by a member of Parliament of that name, and provided that "no religious catechism or religious formula which is distinctive of any particular denomination" should be taught in a school provided by a school board. The teaching of the Apostles' Creed does not contravene this clause. In 1876 the duty was imposed by statute upon every parent to cause his child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. By the same Act school attendance committees were appointed to secure attendance, and in 1880 every local education authority (*q.v.*) was required to make bye-laws on the subject. From 1886-1888 Lord Cross's Commission surveyed the elementary education system of the country. Important changes were introduced into the Code of 1890 to encourage drawing, science, manual instruction and physical exercises in elementary schools. By an Act passed in 1891, elementary education was practically made free. The increasing expenditure out of the ratepayers' purse upon the board schools made more difficult the task of maintaining the voluntary schools in an equal state of efficiency. An Act to give them further financial assistance was passed in 1897. The Board of Education (*q.v.*) was constituted in 1899, and

provision made in the same year for the education of defective and epileptic children. The position of voluntary and board schools, as embodied in the Act of 1870, was practically reversed by the Act of 1902, which placed all elementary schools (*q.v.*) under the direction of one local education authority (*q.v.*). During the following decade the work of the education authorities has developed in a variety of ways, such as the medical inspection (*q.v.*) and feeding (*q.v.*) of the children, and the encouragement of vacation schools (*q.v.*), besides various extensions of the curriculum, such as agricultural education (*q.v.*). But perhaps the most important advance has been made in strengthening the rungs of the ladder from the elementary school to the university (see EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES).

Secondary education (see SECONDARY SCHOOLS) was the care of the Church long even before elementary education. The ancient cathedral schools and the fine old grammar schools, established by other pious founders, have provided for centuries an excellent education which has developed with the requirements of each successive generation. The State did not show any marked concern for their development until the middle of the last century, when the Edward Schools Acts gave some control over them, but the primary object of those statutes was not to secure the educational efficiency of the schools but to safeguard their administration as charitable foundations. The Board of Education Act, 1899, first established a direct connection between the central education authority and the secondary schools (*q.v.*) which was extended by the Education Act, 1902, so that with the assistance of scholarships

(*q.v.*) and the supply of school places upon special terms, the child may readily advance from the elementary to the secondary school. Evening schools, schools of art (*q.v.*), and other forms of technical education (*q.v.*), strictly speaking may be regarded as secondary education, but, at present, owing partly to the fact that in some instances they are only doing over again the work which has been done in elementary schools (*q.v.*), they are in a somewhat anomalous position, in which they receive the name of continuation schools (*q.v.*).

Polytechnics (*q.v.*), technical institutes (*q.v.*), and university colleges (see UNIVERSITIES), give further opportunities for advanced education, while honours at one of the ancient universities have crowned more than once in recent years the career of a lad who began his education in an elementary school.

Education Authorities. — (See LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES.)

Education of Cripples.—Being a record of facts compiled from the London County Council (*q.v.*) and other educational bodies by kind permission.

Each cripple school is managed by a local committee, and has a trained nurse and a helper attached. Twelve ambulances in various parts of London take the children to the cripple schools, and a special chair or couch is supplied, according to the needs of each case.

Drawing is now being made a feature of the instruction of these children, and an art teacher attends at each school to give the more advanced teaching.

The arrangements of the cripple schools are supplemented by a voluntary society, called the Cripple Children's Training and Dinner Society, which not only arranges a midday meal at each school,

but endeavours to provide special training for cripples on reaching sixteen, or apprentices them to suitable trades.

A further development in cripple work is that of carrying on organised schools for children in the various hospitals (*q.v.*). It is therefore possible for all crippled children within the London radius to receive a special education suited to their particular needs.

The Council has no residential accommodation of its own for physically defective children, but arrangements have been made for the reception of children at the Heritage Schools of Arts and Crafts, at Chailey, Sussex, in connection with the Guild of the Brave Poor Things (*q.v.*), where the boys receive a training in woodwork, and the girls in needlework (see TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES).

The education of the children in London certified as physically defective is carried on entirely in day schools, and there are thirty-one such schools available.

The London County Council is prepared to award, in 1911, not more than twenty-six scholarships to boys and girls, as follows: Twelve to the crippled, eight to the blind, and six to the deaf. These scholarships will be tenable at approved places of instruction. Candidates must, as a rule, have attended for at least two years a certified school for physically defective, blind, or deaf children (see SPECIAL SCHOOLS). In awarding the scholarships, the council will take into consideration (a) the progress made in the ordinary school subjects, and (b) the evidence of sufficient capacity to justify the hope that the scholars will be successful in following up the branch of work which they take up. No candidates will be eligible whose parents have not

resided in London for at least two years.

On the award of scholarships, institutions will be selected for the scholars which, in the opinion of the Council, provide the technical and general education necessary to enable them to gain a livelihood.

Scholarships are awarded for one year in the first instance, and will be renewed if, in the opinion of the Council, the continuance of the award is necessary to carry the training to a point at which the scholar may be deemed capable of earning a livelihood, but no scholarship can in any case be held for more than four years in all.

Scholarships provide free education, together with such allowances for travelling expenses, books and outfit, as shall appear to the council to be reasonable, and in addition, annual maintenance grants, where considered necessary, of £10 a year and £15, according as the scholar is or is not less than fifteen years of age on the 31st of July preceding the date of payment.

In the case of scholars who are sent to a residential institution, such as the Heritage Craft Schools at Chailey, the scholarship may take the form of commuted payment for education and maintenance, not exceeding £30 a year. The council does not undertake to be responsible for the maintenance of the scholars during the holidays.

It is thus clearly proved that every crippled child in London could be given an excellent education suited to his or her peculiar circumstances, and every parent and teacher and guardian of crippled children should make it their duty to see that these advantages are properly understood and enjoyed.

Educational Handwork Association.—(21, Fitzwilliam Street, West

Huddersfield.) This association, formed by the amalgamation of the British Sloyd Association and the Educational Handwork Union, exists to promote the following four objects:—

(1) To serve as a means of intercourse between members and others interested in educational handwork.

(2) To make educational handwork better known, and to show its importance as an essential factor in education by means of lectures, pamphlets, practical demonstrations and discussions.

(3) To promote the introduction of educational handwork into all primary and secondary schools, so as to provide for the harmonious development of the pupils.

(4) To encourage and assist wherever possible in the provision of special training of teachers.

With these objects in view the Association has established branches in various large towns, and publishes monthly a journal entitled *Educational Handwork*. A Board of Examinations for Educational Handwork, formed by the two societies before their amalgamation grants certificates (after examination) in the several branches of handwork to those who have been trained by the Association to be teachers. Summer schools for the training of teachers have been held at various places in which the following subjects have been taught—Kindergarten handwork, clay modelling, blackboard drawing, primary drawing, brush drawing, cardboard modelling, handwork for juniors, rural handwork, woodwork, sloyd, metal work, school gardening, repoussé work (metal), wood carving, laboratory arts, domestic handicraft, plain needlework, art needlework. The illustrated prospectus of the Association's summer course reveals at once the value of the training given. The aim of

the Association is to develop the intelligence of children through new channels. Its main object is not to make children more dexterous in the use of tools or to produce workmen, but to give to children better and more complete education. Each kind of handwork must be taught with a view to its educational value. The same ideal has been adopted by the more progressive education authorities. The London County Council (*q.v.*), for instance, has instituted centres for handicrafts and manual training.

Educational Opportunities.—The attitude towards education of large sections of the community is gradually undergoing a change. Mainly, perhaps, because education is compulsory, attendance at an elementary school (*q.v.*) has been regarded as a painful necessity rather than as an opportunity, the use of which will influence the whole future life. Children have left school on their fourteenth birthday (see ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL), and parents have done nothing to detain them, even until the end of the term, though some local education authorities (*q.v.*) have made regulations with that object in view. The recent changes in educational arrangements have increased the necessity for change in the attitude, both of parents and children, towards education. Failure to make use of the opportunities may begin to have important effects at the age of ten or eleven years, since children from the elementary schools are then selected to proceed to the secondary school (*q.v.*). Every facility is afforded for those who themselves desire to take part in the work of education to proceed as bursars (*q.v.*), pupil teachers (*q.v.*), or student teachers (*q.v.*), to be trained as teachers (*q.v.*). The secondary schools also afford

opportunities for instruction as an equipment for commercial life and employment in the Civil Service (*q.v.*). While some may be suited for these classes of work, many may more naturally find their occupations in the use of their hands. The recognition of the fact that the one class of work requires training as much as the other marks an important advance in recent years. Classes for the teaching of domestic subjects (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY) should raise the common attitude of mind towards domestic service. Manual training centres (see EDUCATIONAL HANDWORK ASSOCIATION) and trade schools, provide opportunities for the cultivation of skill in manual labour, while schools of art (*q.v.*), and technical institutes (*q.v.*), give further openings for more advanced training in the same direction. Continuation schools (*q.v.*) are no longer merely opportunities for education in the evening, but, by the co-operation of employers, provide young men and women with a new form of half-time system. These developments on behalf of the younger generation are having their complement in the remarkable movement for giving opportunities to the adult workers, which finds its most important expression in the tutorial classes established by the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*), and adult schools (*q.v.*).

Edward Medal.—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.)

Electrical Engineering.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Elementary Schools.—The term, as defined in the Elementary Education Act, 1870, means "a school or department of a school at which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given, and does not include any school or department of a school, at which the ordinary payments in respect

of the instruction, from each scholar, exceed ninepence a week." The Act did not define elementary education, but the question that is included within the term was fully discussed in the famous Cockerton Case in 1901. The chaotic condition of affairs resulting from that judgment was one reason for the passing of the Education Act of 1902. The object of that measure was to co-ordinate education of various grades. In it was inserted a negative definition that the term "elementary school" does not include any school carried on as an evening school. It also enacted that "the power to provide instruction under the Elementary Education Acts, 1870 to 1900, shall, except where those Acts expressly provide to the contrary, be limited to the provision in a public elementary school, of instruction given under the regulations (embodied in the code) of the Board of Education (*q.v.*) to scholars, who, at the close of the school year, will not be more than sixteen years of age: Provided that the local education authority (*q.v.*) may, with the consent of the Board of Education, extend those limits in the case of any such school if no suitable higher education is available within a reasonable distance of the school."

Although the object of the Education Act, 1902, was to establish one uniform system of elementary education, the old distinction between voluntary and board schools was to some extent retained under the guise of non-provided and provided or council schools. Non-provided schools are schools built by voluntary agency, generally the Church of England, having a majority of the managers members of that body and retaining the distinctive religious teaching. Provided schools are schools built by, and entirely under the control of, the

local education authority (*q.v.*). The Code containing the regulations respecting elementary schools authorises a special type known as the "higher elementary school." The aim of the curriculum is to continue the general education of the scholars, and to provide them with special instruction bearing on their future occupation. The minimum age of admission is twelve. The higher elementary school is in a somewhat anomalous position, as it is arguable that they are really secondary schools. The chief distinction would seem to be that they give the child an opportunity to specialise with a definite aim in order to start his work in life at an earlier age than many of the scholars in secondary schools.

There are some elementary schools, which are not public elementary schools. They are known as "certified efficient schools." The definition of them in the Act includes "any elementary school which is not conducted for private profit, and is open at all reasonable times to the inspection of His Majesty's Inspectors and requires the like attendance from its scholars as is required in a public elementary school, and keeps such registers of those attendances as may be, for the time being, required by the Board of Education, and is certified by the Board of Education to be an efficient school."

Embossing of Books.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Embroidery.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES AND TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Emigration.—(See COLONISATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Employer's Liability.—(See WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.)

Employment in Factories.—(See FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Employment of Children Act, 1903.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Employment of Cripples.—(See TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES.)

Endowed Charities.—Almost every parish in the country has one or more endowed charities. From time to time official inquiries have been made in order to prepare a complete record. One is now in progress. The Charity Commissioners send a Commissioner, who holds an inquiry for the purpose of collecting all the available information. The particulars are embodied in a report, which is presented to Parliament and afterwards published for a small sum, so that it is easy to obtain particulars of the object, method of administration, and extent to which the purpose is fulfilled of any endowed charity. Generally only slight interest is taken in the proceedings of the local trustees so that there may easily be omissions or even graver breaches of duty. Workers concerned in any way with charitable relief (*q.v.*) should be the first to be acquainted with the objects of the endowed charities in the neighbourhood, if for no other reason but to avoid overlapping. By the use of endowed charities new organisations might be rendered unnecessary. For example, many endowed charities were originally for apprenticeship purposes. Under changed circumstances they have been devoted to other educational aims, but it may well be that they would be rendered more useful by reverting to their original object.

Engineering.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Engraving.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Enteric Fever.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES AND NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Epileptics.—Dr. Aldren Turner, of the Chalfont St. Peter Epileptic Colony, has shown that while

some epileptics show no signs of mental enfeeblement even after thirty or more years, 29·1 per cent. become actually demented, and most of them develop either a bad memory or more serious mental defects. The Royal Commission on the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*) included investigations concerning epileptics in its researches, as so many were found to be mentally defective. Unfortunately the valuable figures of the Royal Commission do not give the proportion of mentally defective epileptics, although, according to the "form for the summary of cases" for medical investigators, they were separately reported upon. The figures might therefore, with a little trouble, still be available. The numbers of sane epileptics, however, are given in separate columns, and show that out of the investigated localities, which comprise urban, rural, and mining areas, in England and Wales, with a total area of 2,830,129 acres, and a population of 2,362,222, the sane epileptics numbered 1,373; while of the 436,833 school children on the register in those areas, 172 boys and 142 girls, making a total of 314, were sane epileptics. In their search for employment, sane epileptics are, as a rule, severely handicapped, especially where the fits are somewhat marked. At the same time it is not altogether unknown to find amongst men in the ordinary business world, cases of epileptic seizure occurring at long intervals, associated with unusual mental brilliancy. When only slight mental impairment exists the gradual cessation of fits, following successful medical treatment, is as a rule, accompanied by marked mental improvement, which may end, if the fits cease, in the almost entire disappearance of mental defect.

Until about 1888 hardly any

provision for the epileptic was made in England, and the Maghul Home for Epileptics, founded in that year for their care, was the first institution to be opened. A special investigation was made, in 1890, by the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) with regard to the condition of this class, and their report, published in 1893, advocated the establishment of Colonies for Epileptics. A Colony was, in accordance with these suggestions, founded by the National Society for Epileptics, and other Homes and Colonies were soon founded. Boards of Guardians are empowered to pay for cases in these homes, as in the case of Homes and Colonies for the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*).¹ The Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act was passed in 1899, which empowers Education Authorities to provide for such children, as in the case of the feeble-minded, in either State or Voluntary Homes or Schools. The recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*) included epileptics who were mentally defective; for the sane epileptic it is recommended that institutions and houses for their care shall be regulated in the same manner and by the same authority as the mentally defective. The certification of the epileptic is, however, not advocated. As in the case of the feeble-minded, it is urged that "in the interest both of economy and of efficiency, voluntary effort should be turned to the utmost account by the Board of Control," and the Industrial Colony system is strongly recommended.

Equalisation of Rates. (London).

—The London County Council (*q.v.*) form for London a yearly equalisation fund, which they raise by the levy of a contribution of sixpence in the pound on the rateable value of the parishes (see VALUATION),

and distribute as a grant among the sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) in proportion to population. If the contribution of a parish exceeds the grant due to it, the difference is paid to the County Council; and if the grant be greater than the contribution, the Council pay the balance to the sanitary authority. A total of something approaching £1,100,000 a year is charged on the equalisation fund. It mainly represents expenditure incurred in scavenging, lighting, and other expenses of streets. A further large expenditure in London is equalised by the operation of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (*q.v.*). Equalisation of some £327,000 a year is effected by a grant known as the "indoor pauper grant," which is paid by the County Council out of rates levied by them over the whole administrative county, and by means of which an expenditure of fourpence per day per head of indoor poor is borne by the county generally in proportion to rateable value. Practically, too, the whole expenditure of the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*) is equalised, as to part, because met by contributions from the unions on the basis of rateable value, and as to nearly all the rest, through the operation of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (*q.v.*), for the purposes of which the expenditure of the Asylum Board is treated as expenditure of the boards of guardians.

Errand Boys.—(See **BOY LABOUR**, **CHILD LABOUR** and **TRADES FOR BOYS**.)

Erysipelas.—(See **NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES**.)

Eugenics.—The term eugenics, which may be literally translated as "good breeding," was first employed by Sir Francis Galton, who invented the word to draw attention to the importance in

human affairs of the facts made known by a study of biology. Sir Francis Galton contended that "nature" must precede "nurture" in importance, and that though environment and education are necessary to the full growth of human faculty, they can only provide the means by which to cultivate that which heredity has already given. Mr. Montague Crackanthorpe has contended that eugenics was first hinted at by the early Greeks. Theognis of Megara, as early as the sixth century B.C., pointed out that the Greeks were racially degraded, because of the mixture of noble and base.

"The churl or ruffian that in
wealth has thriven,
May match his offspring with
the proudest race."

Plato was in theory a eugenist, however impracticable his plans. Sir Francis Galton, however, actually translated the eugenic ideal from the region of speculation into practical action. The Eugenics Laboratory was founded by him in 1906, and the Eugenics Education Society came into being in 1907. Its manifesto appeals to all good citizens to realise that the future will one day become the present, and that to serve the future without neglecting the demand of the present is a sacred duty. It maintains that eugenics goes to the root of the matter, for whereas the short-sighted social reformer pins his faith on state-supported hospitals and other like institutions, this society stirs up public opinion to regard the conscious transmission of definite liability to disease, from parent to child, in the light of a serious crime. There is undoubted danger to the race in the multiplication of the unfit, protected, as they are in the present day, from competitive forces and natural

selection, by the intervention of Poor Law and ill-advised philanthropic schemes, which can be only calculated to secure the survival and increase of some of the lowest of the race. Though the eugenists advocate no harsh measures, they point out that while, for the good of humanity, we should spare and save, distinction should be drawn between the right to live, and the right to propagate. In view of the contention, which is apparently corroborated by investigation, that the fertility of the defective and of the feeble-minded is greater than that of the normal, it is important to recognise, in the words of the eugenists, "that man, the animal, is a highly responsible being who has discovered those laws of nature which enable him to ennoble and elevate his race, and that in this general recognition lies the best chance for his country to escape the fate which has befallen many a powerful nationality in the past." It has been well pointed out by an eminent medical authority, that more nations have sunk to utter insignificance through mental moral and physical degeneracy, than by war, famine, or any other conditions whatsoever. Civilized nations should awaken to this danger, and avert the present tendency, by which the philanthropy of one generation hangs insupportable burdens on the shoulders of the next. In demonstration of the importance of this position it is only necessary to cite the investigations of a Sub-committee of the Eugenics Education Society, which reported in connection with the Royal Commission on the Poor Law, and published an account of its researches in the *Eugenics Review*, October, 1910. Its investigations pointed to the fact that pauperism and inefficiency, frequently accompanied by some specific disease,

mental or physical, are found in an extraordinary high ratio in certain families for several generations, and that these families have collateral branches, which furnish the same type of deficiency. One chart connected with this investigation gives the years of chargeability, both for indoor and outdoor relief (*q.v.*), of such a family, where drunkenness, illegitimacy and slight imbecility frequently appeared. The period of chargeability of ten of its members totalled a few days short of 100 years. The cost to the normal population for maintaining this prolific and increasing family of degenerates, from the Poor Law alone, was £2,229.

Although such facts are of vital importance to the well-being of a nation, unfortunately, with the exception of the National Association for the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*), and the Lancashire and Cheshire Society, for the same class, few practical attempts to carry out these principles exist. Eugenic societies are springing up, not only by the formation of various centres of research in England, but in Europe, America, and Australia. The Eugenics Education Society seeks less to draw any hard and fast rules for the achievement of its objects and ideals, than generally to educate public opinion in the ways in which they are likely to be brought to pass. Lecturers are furnished by the Society, which has also an excellent library open to its members. The address of the Central Society is 6, York Buildings, Adelphi; Hon. Sec., Mrs. Gotto.

Evening Play Centres.—(See also CHILDREN'S HAPPY EVENINGS ASSOCIATION.) The Evening Play Centres Committee (Chairman and Hon. Treasurer, Mrs. Humphry Ward, 25, Grosvenor Place, S.W.), was formed in the winter of 1904

with a view to providing regular and organised recreation in some of the poorer and more crowded districts of London for elementary school children after school hours, in council schools. The London County Council (*q.v.*) lend the school buildings to the committee and give free cleaning, caretaking, heating and lighting. There were in October, 1910, fifteen play centres in London organised by the committee—in Battersea, Bethnal Green, Bow, Deptford, Haggerston, Holloway, Islington, Latimer Road, Poplar, Ratcliff, Somers Town, Stepney and Walworth.

The centres are open five evenings a week, from 5.30 to 7.30, and on Saturday mornings, for boys and girls between the ages of five and fourteen. The children attached to each centre are chosen, in the first instance, by the teachers of the four or five schools, as the case may be, within easy reach of the centre, who are asked to make the *need* of the children their basis of choice.

A child attends a centre normally twice a week, but a third attendance is allowed for Library or quiet games, and each centre has a list of children who, for reasons of special need, are allowed to attend every night.

The roll of the centre is usually about 800 children, and the average weekly attendance at a full centre during the winter terms is about 2,000.

Each centre is under the direction of a paid superintendent, who is responsible to the Play Centres Committee, and is assisted by both paid and voluntary workers.

The occupations include musical drill, dancing, singing, games, gymnastic, woodwork, cobbling, basket work, painting, plasticine modelling, needlework, knitting, quiet games and reading, while there is always a toy-room for the little ones.

In the summer the centres are transferred to the playgrounds, and games of all kinds are organised for both boys and girls. In the case of the bigger boys inter-centre cricket, football, and hand-ball matches are organised, while the girls of the various centres meet for basket-ball matches.

The play centres provide for the play-time of the children of the poor an alternative—on the one hand, to the streets, with their dangers both physical and moral, and on the other, to the cramped and airless living rooms of the tenement houses, which are the only play places of those children whose parents will not risk the roughness, lawlessness and licence, too often resulting from the life of the streets. The careful parents greatly appreciate the centres, and are encouraged to visit them and see their children at their games and handwork. The handwork classes, while involving no mental strain, satisfy the child's natural desire to be doing or "making" something, and are of immense value in forming in the children the *habit* of useful occupation in their leisure time. Such classes should conduce naturally to evening school attendance (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS).

The Administrative Provisions (Education) Act of 1907 made it legal for the County and Borough Councils to contribute to play centres and vacation schools (*q.v.*), and it is to be hoped that the London County Council, in addition to the "facilities" it already gives, may soon see its way to make a financial grant to each centre, and thus make it possible for the Play Centres Committee, which last year raised a sum of over £3,000, to open new centres in some of the many poor districts appealing for them. It is estimated that a fully-equipped centre,

dealing with from 800 to 1,000 children costs about £250 a year.

A report of the play centres can be had on application to Mrs. Humphry Ward, 25, Grosvenor Place, S.W., who would earnestly appeal for voluntary workers at the centres.

Evening Schools.—(See CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.)

Exhibition of Sweated Industries. (See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Extension Lectures.—(See UNIVERSITY EXTENSION LECTURES.)

Factories, Employment of Children in.—(See also HALF-TIME LABOUR and WAGE-EARNING CHILDREN COMMITTEE.) The Factory Act of 1901 forbids the employment in factories and workshops of children under the age of twelve, and regulates the hours they are allowed to work between the ages of twelve and thirteen or fourteen (see FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN). In 1903 the Employment of Children Act was passed, which adds that children may not lift, move, or carry anything so heavy as to be likely to cause them injury, or be employed in any occupation likely to prove injurious to life, limb, health, or education. When employed half time in factory or workshop no child may be employed in any other occupation.

Factories, Health Precautions in.—(See also FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.) With regard to sanitary provisions, factories and workshops are on a different footing and controlled by different regulations. The Act of 1891 excluded workshops from the operation of the Factory Act, so far as its sanitary provisions were concerned, and brought them under the Public Health Act (*q.v.*). Therefore, while the factory inspector (*q.v.*) appointed by the

Home Office (*q.v.*) is responsible for seeing that factories are kept clean and healthy, the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) is responsible for the cleanliness and health of workshops. There are, however, certain *special sanitary provisions* which are enforced by the factory inspectors both in factories and workshops. They are:—

1. The maintenance of a reasonable temperature in every room where persons are employed. The measures taken to heat the room must not interfere with the purity of the air.

2. The provision of fans or other mechanical means of ventilation where persons are employed in any processes raising dust or generating gas or vapour to an injurious extent (see DANGEROUS TRADES).

3. The provision of a sufficient and suitable supply of sanitary conveniences, with separate accommodation for each sex, except in London, where the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, regulates such provision, or in urban districts which have adopted the equivalent powers of the Public Health Acts Amendment Act of 1890.

4. Factories and workshops where any process is carried on which renders the floor liable to be wet must have their floors suitably drained.

Factories are inspected for cleanliness, overcrowding, ventilation, and drainage of floors by the factory inspectors.

Cleanliness. It is required that they shall be kept in a cleanly state, free from bad smells; and that they shall be painted in oil or varnished every seven years and washed every fourteen months, or if not so painted or varnished they must be lime-washed every fourteen months.

Overcrowding is prevented by the Secretary of State requiring a minimum space of 250 cubic ft. for each person employed, but when overtime

is being worked the minimum space required is 400 c. ft. A notice must be affixed showing the number of persons who may be employed in each room. An increased allowance of space is required when artificial light is used, but this does not apply when the factory is lit by electricity.

Ventilation. The standard of ventilation for every class of factory is fixed by Special Orders of the Home Secretary. Apart from this, however, it is enacted that every factory must be so ventilated as to render harmless impurities generated in the course of the work.

Workshops. The regulations are very nearly the same as those enumerated for factories, except that workshops are exempted from the provisions as to painting, varnishing, and limewashing. Instead it is enacted that the district council may give notice to the owner or occupier of a workshop requiring him to limewash or cleanse or purify it. Workshops are inspected by the sanitary inspectors acting under the direction of the medical officer of health. If the provisions of the Factory Act are not properly carried out, the factory inspectors may inspect and take proceedings recovering the cost of such proceedings from the district council which has failed in its duties. (See also LAUNDRIES.)

Overcrowding in workshops is defined in the same way as for factories.

Accidents. The Notice of Accidents Act, 1906, amended Section 19 of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1901, and, therefore, the law now makes it compulsory on the employer to send at once to the factory inspector of the district written notice of—

(1) any accident causing loss of life to a person employed in the factory or workshop;

(2) any accident due to mechanical power, molten metal, hot liquid

explosion, escape of gas or steam, or electricity, which causes the workman or woman to be absent a whole day from work;

(3) any accident due to a special cause about which the Home Secretary has made an Order, and which causes disablement for a whole day;

(4) any accident disabling a person from working at his ordinary work for more than seven days.

Accidents under (1) and (2) must also be reported to the certifying surgeon and under (3) the accident must be reported to the certifying surgeon if the Home Secretary specifies that this is to be done in his Special Order. If death follows on a reported accident, notice of the death must be sent to the inspector.

The Home Secretary has power to extend the provisions of this Act as to notices of accidents to any class of dangerous occurrences in mines, quarries, factories, or workshops, such as explosions, fires, collapse of buildings, accidents to machinery or plant, whether personal injury is caused or not.

The occupier of the factory or workshop is liable to a fine not exceeding £10 if he does not comply with the provisions of the Act.

The first portion of this Act applies to mines and quarries. (See also WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.)

Certifying Surgeon. The main duties of a certifying surgeon are to examine children and young persons as to their fitness for employment in a factory, and to investigate and report upon accidents occurring in a factory or workshop. He has also to report upon every case of lead, phosphorus, arsenical or mercurial poison (see LEAD POISONING), or anthrax. The surgeon is appointed by the chief inspector under the direction of the Secretary of State, and when no appointment is made the Poor

Law medical officer is to act. He is remunerated by fees paid by the occupier of a factory or workshop according to a scale scheduled in the Act. From July, 1907, the official duties of certifying surgeons have been extended to certain diseases under the Workmen's Compensation Act, and are no longer limited to diseases contracted in factory premises.

Employment of Women after Childbirth. Under the Act of 1901 no woman or girl may be knowingly employed in a factory or workshop within four weeks after childbirth (see MATERNITY INSURANCE). The lady inspectors, however, constantly complain that this clause of the Act prohibiting such employment is ignored. It will be noticed that the word "knowingly" is introduced, and a factory owner can always plead ignorance of the date of birth of the child. To meet these cases it is suggested that a medical certificate be required before a woman can resume work after her confinement. These certificates are required under several European codes.

Another reason why the prohibition is ignored is the poverty of the mothers. Many women say that they realise the value of the exclusion if they "could only live during the time"; but while work for women is so easy to obtain, and while the supply of unskilled men is so much greater than the demand for their labour, it is difficult to enforce the law. The case is mentioned, in the 1907 factory inspector's report, of G. H—, a gut scraper, who returned to work when her child was two weeks old. She had been deserted by her husband, and the manager took her back because he pitied her extreme destitution. She continued standing, and constant exposure to wet made her so ill that she was obliged to leave after four days' work. Lead

processes and heavy, hot, or dusty work in a factory are especially injurious to women at these times. The inspector's work is made the more difficult because in many cases the guardians refuse outdoor relief (*q.v.*) for more than fourteen days after the birth of the child (see also WOMEN WITH CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW).

Fire. Every factory built since January, 1902, and every workshop built since January, 1896, in which more than forty persons are employed, must be furnished with a certificate from the County Council if the premises are situated in London, or from the local district council if outside. This certificate, which is supplied after inspection by the council's officers, must state the means provided for escape from fire. Owners of other factories and workshops employing over forty persons must provide such means of escape as may be required by the local authority, an appeal being permissible to an arbitrator in case of disputes. The doors of every room in which more than ten persons are employed must, unless sliding doors are used, open outwards if the factory or workshop has been erected since 1906. No door of any kind may be locked, bolted, or fastened in such a manner as not to be easily opened from the inside while any person is within the factory for the purpose of employment or meals. The district councils may make bye-laws providing that there shall be adequate means of escape from fire, and the London County Council (*q.v.*) may make bye-laws on this subject with respect to all factories and workshops within its area.

Humidity. Cotton yarns are commonly weighted with size, and, therefore, a moist atmosphere is necessary when they are woven. The Factory Act, consequently, requires that in every place where

cotton cloth is woven the amount of moisture must not exceed a certain proportion varying with the temperature. The scale is regulated by a table embodied in a schedule to the Act, which the Secretary of State can vary by a new table, which must be laid before both Houses of Parliament for forty days. Proper thermometers must be kept in places plainly visible to the workers, with copies of the table beside them, and readings must be taken three times a day and recorded. Due notice must be given to the chief inspector of the employment of artificial means to produce humidity. Only pure water must be used for this purpose, and suitable cloakrooms for the employees must be provided.

These regulations also apply to all textile factories where atmospheric humidity is artificially produced.

In 1909, 33,280 records were received, of which 23,721 were in cotton weaving factories, and 921 instances of excessive humidity were reported, of which 655 referred to cotton weaving.

Machinery. (See also *Accidents.*) All hoists, fly-wheels, water-wheels, engines, and every wheel-race in a factory must be securely fenced; and so must every part of the mill-gearing and all dangerous parts of the machinery, unless in such a position or so constructed as to be as safe as if fenced. Every steam boiler used for generating steam in a factory or workshop must have attached to it a proper safety valve and steam gauge and water gauge, and it must be examined by a competent person once every fourteen months. A child is not allowed to clean machinery in motion or any place under moving machinery, except overhead mill-gearing (*i.e.*, machinery by which power is transmitted) (see FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN); and a

young person may not clean any dangerous part of machinery in motion. Women and young persons are not allowed to clean mill-gearing in motion. No protected person is allowed to work between the fixed and traversing part of a self-acting machine while the machine is in motion. No person employed in a factory, of whatever age or sex, is allowed to be in the space between the fixed and traversing parts of a self-acting machine, unless the machine is stopped with the traversing part on the outward run, but that space does not include the space in front of a self-acting machine.

The use of machinery or plant in a dangerous state may be prohibited by a court of summary jurisdiction until it is repaired or altered.

Factories, Hours of Employment in.—(See also FACTORIES, MEALS IN, NIGHT WORK IN, OVERTIME IN, FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901, and FACTORY HOLIDAYS.) The question of the hours during which children, young persons, and women may be employed is a very complicated one, partly because the period of employment differs in different classes of factories, and partly because the Home Secretary has power to grant "Special Orders" (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901: DEFINITION OF TERMS) dealing with both hours and overtime.

Children, that is half-timers, must be employed either on alternate days or in morning or afternoon sets. After a child has been employed in a morning set for six days it must be changed to an afternoon set, and *vice versa*, while if the alternate day system is adopted it must be changed each week. The morning set may begin at 6 a.m. or 7 a.m. and end at or before 1 p.m. The afternoon set may begin at or after noon and end at 6 p.m. or 7 p.m. On the alternate day system, the order is the same as for young

persons (see FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN).

Young persons between fourteen and eighteen and those of thirteen with an educational certificate, may be employed in textile factories from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., or 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., with intervals of two hours for meals, and on Saturdays from 6 a.m. to 11.30 a.m. (or to noon, with an hour's interval for meals), or from 7 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. for manufacturing purposes, and half an hour longer for other purposes, provided half an hour is allowed for meals. In non-textile factories and workshops they may be employed from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., or 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., with one and a half hours for meals; and on Saturdays from 6 a.m. to 2 p.m., 7 a.m. to 3 p.m., or 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., with half an hour for meals. If the young person has not worked for more than eight hours on any day in the previous week, he or she may be employed on Saturday from 6 a.m. to 4 p.m., with two hours for meals. In all cases one of the hours for meals must be before 3 p.m.

Women. The hours for women are the same as those for young persons, except that in workshops, where young persons are not employed, women may work a specified period of twelve hours between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m., with one and a half hours for meals; and on Saturday a specified period of eight hours between 6 a.m. and 4 p.m., with half an hour for meals.

In domestic factories and workshops no restriction as to hours is placed upon women, except that they must not work on Sunday; but young persons' hours must be between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m., with four and a half hours for meals; and on Saturdays, 6 a.m. to 4 p.m., with two and a half hours for meals.

In any non-textile factory and workshop specified by the Secretary of State the period of employment for

young persons and for women may be from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m., but the time when the period of work commences, whether 6, 7, 8, or 9 p.m., must be conspicuously posted in the factory, and may not be changed without notice to the inspector (see FACTORY INSPECTORS), or oftener than once a quarter.

The clause relating to work inside and outside the factory or workshop on the same day is of some importance. Children may not be employed during the legal period of employment (detailed above) on the business of a factory or a workshop, outside the factory or workshop, on any day on which they are employed in the factory and workshop. Neither a young person nor a woman may be employed in the business of a factory or workshop outside the premises on any day during which he or she is employed in the factory or workshop both before and after the dinner hour. This is understood to mean that if a young person or a woman ceases work at the dinner hour or commences work after the dinner hour, he or she may be employed in the evening on work for her employer in customers' houses or in her own home.

When a woman or young person is employed during the same day by the same employer, both in a factory or workshop and in a shop, the whole time of employment must not exceed that permitted for employment in the factory or workshop on that day.

Section 57 of the Act which exempted women employed in certain classes of flax scutch mills from the regulations of the Act, so far as they related to the period of employment, was repealed in 1907.

Factories, Meals in.—(See also DANGEROUS TRADES, FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN and FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.) In every factory or

workshop a notice must be put up showing the meal hours for the factory or workshop. Two hours must be allowed for meals in textile factories, one and a half hours in non-textile factories and workshops, and one and a half hours in women's workshops. On Saturdays the time to be allowed for meals is half an hour. In domestic factories and workshops the time given to young persons for meals is to be four and a half hours, with two and a half on Saturdays. One hour must always be given before 3 p.m. The meal hours must be the same for all protected persons employed in the same factory, except in certain specified cases, such, for instance, as the spinning of artificial silk or the making of bread and biscuits by means of travelling ovens. The Home Secretary has power to grant special permission for employment during meal times or for different meal times in trades where the complete stoppage of work might result in injury to the material or machinery. Meals may not be eaten in a room in which work is being carried on, and there are certain factories in which no child, young person, or woman may take a meal or remain during meal hours, even if no work is being carried on. No protected person may be employed continuously for more than four and a half hours in a textile factory, or for more than five hours in a non-textile factory, without an interval of at least half an hour for a meal. In workshops young persons and children are also subject to the five hour's limit.

Certain special regulations apply to special trades. Employment in printing, bleaching, and dyeing works is the same as in textile factories, except that the period of five hours between meals is retained. In Turkey-red dyeing, work may continue till 4.30 p.m. on Saturdays

if the extra time has already been allowed for in the same week. Male young persons over sixteen may be employed (a) in lace factories between 4 a.m. and 10 p.m., with nine hours off; (b) in bakehouses (*q.v.*) between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m.; but in both cases they must not be employed both before and after the regular hours on the same day, or after the regular period on one day and before it on the next.

Factories, Night Work in.—(See also FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN, MEALS IN, OVERTIME IN, FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901, and FACTORY HOLIDAYS.) Children (see FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN), young persons, and women may not be employed at night. In blast furnaces, iron mills, letterpress printing works, paper mills, oil and seed crushing mills, copper and yellow metal rolling mills, tube works where furnaces are used, knocking-out and cutting departments of sugar factories, galvanizing works, china-clay works, iron-ore washing, and calcining and stamping parts of mineral dressing floors, a male young person over fourteen may be employed at night for not more than twelve consecutive hours specified in a notice, with due allowance for meal-times. He must not be employed during the twelve hours preceding or following the night employment, or for more than six nights in any two weeks (but seven in blast furnaces or paper mills).

In glass works a young person over fourteen may be employed at night during the usual hours of the works, but for not more than sixty hours in a week, or for more than fourteen hours in four turns per week, or twelve in five turns, or ten in six turns, and so on to not more than nine turns. There must be an interval equal to a full turn between

turns, and if work is continued for more than five hours, there must be a meal period of half an hour. Sunday work is prohibited.

In works where printing of newspapers is carried on for not more than two nights in the week, a male young person may be employed at night as if he were an adult during not more than two nights in a week, and for not more than twelve hours in twenty-four.

Factories, Overtime in.—(See also FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN, and NIGHT WORK IN.) For children there is practically no overtime, and for young persons very little. In certain specified factories a young person (see FACTORY ACT, 1901) may be employed at the end of a day's work on any day but Saturday, or the substituted day (see FACTORY HOLIDAYS), in order to complete a process of manufacture; but such extra time must be taken off the total period for the week. Other trades may have overtime for young persons when it is necessary to prevent damage to material or machinery—in open air bleaching, for instance, or in the case of factories driven by water power, where there may be danger from drought or flood.

Women, on the other hand, may work overtime in very many non-textile factories and workshops, but not in textile factories. The Home Secretary has power to sanction overtime for women in any trade in which materials are liable to be spoiled by the weather, in which there is a press of work at certain seasons, or in which there is a sudden influx of orders. This overtime for two hours a day may extend the hours of work from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., from 7 a.m. to 9 p.m., or from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m. This is understood to mean that overtime may be before or after or both before

and after the period of employment. Thus a woman whose usual hours of work are from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. might work overtime from 6 a.m. to 8 a.m., or from 7 a.m. to 8 a.m. and from 8 p.m. to 9 p.m., or from 8 p.m. to 10 p.m. Two hours in the day must always be set apart for meals, and half an hour of the meal times must be after 5 p.m. The overtime is limited to three days in any one week, and to thirty days in any twelve months. Any day in which any woman in the factory is employed overtime must be reckoned as one of the thirty. An employer, for instance, cannot work one portion of his staff overtime during the first half of the week and the remainder of his staff during the latter part of the week. If he could, the factory inspector (see FACTORY INSPECTORS)—who does not know each individual worker—would never be able to check overtime. Notice of overtime must always be sent to the inspector not later than eight o'clock in the evening of the day on which the overtime is worked. Fish curing and fruit preserving are among the trades in which it is allowable for women to work fifty days' overtime in the year, but not more than two hours a day or three days a week. The regulations applying to overtime for young persons, in order to complete a process, or in Turkey-red dyeing, or open-air bleaching, or where water-driven factories are liable to be stopped by flood or drought, apply also to women.

In workshops where only women are employed, the foregoing rules are not in force.

Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, Definition of Terms.—(See also ABSTRACT, BAKEHOUSES, DANGEROUS TRADES, DOMESTIC FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS, FACTORIES, etc., INDUSTRIAL LAW COMMITTEE, LAUNDRIES, LEAD POISONING, GIRLS' CLUBS NATIONAL ORGANISATION OF,

PARTICULARS CLAUSE, REGISTER, TRUCK ACTS AND UNDERGROUND WORKROOMS.) In order to understand the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, it is necessary to explain the meaning of the words used. The Act deals with textile factories non-textile factories, workshops, and domestic workshops.

Textile Factories are premises in which mechanical power is used to work machinery employed in preparing, manufacturing, or finishing, or in any process incidental to the manufacture of cotton, wool, hair, silk, flax, hemp, jute, tow, china, glass, cocoanut fibre, and any fabric made thereof. But certain works where these materials are dealt with are declared not to be textile. Factories for the manufacture of hosiery, for instance, are textile, but lace warehouses are non-textile. Jute mills are textile factories, but rope works are non-textile.

Non-textile Factories are premises where any articles are made, repaired, altered, ornamented, finished, or adapted for sale by means of manual labour exercised for gain, if mechanical power is used on the premises. There is, however, in the Act a list of works or premises which are defined to be non-textile factories, although the machinery may not be driven by power. Further, it is provided that shipbuilding yards, quarries, pit-banks, lace warehouses, rope works, hat works, dry cleaning works, carpet-beating works, and bottle-washing works are non-textile works, if mechanical power is used.

Workshops are places where any article is made, repaired, altered, ornamented, finished, or adapted for sale by means of manual labour exercised for gain, and where, with the above exceptions, mechanical power is not used.

Some classes of works are, therefore, factories when mechanical

power is used, and workshops when mechanical power is not used.

Domestic Workshops are workshops in which only members of the same family are employed.

A Tenement Factory is a building which contains several factories separately occupied. They are very prevalent in large towns, where the owner of the building lets out floors to manufacturers, and provides them with steam or electric power, the cost of which is included in the rent.

A Child is a person under fourteen, or a person of thirteen with an educational certificate.

A Young Person is between thirteen or fourteen and eighteen years of age.

Employment means work whether for wages or not, either in a manufacturing process or handicraft, or in cleaning, or in oiling the machinery, or in any work incidental to or connected with the manufacturing process or handicraft. Any person found in a factory or workshop is presumed to be employed there, except at certain times. This definition does not apply to domestic workshops.

Bakehouses are places in which bread, biscuits, or confectionery are made or baked, from the baking of which a profit is derived.

Special Orders. Unconditional power is given to the Home Secretary to make Special Orders specifying the classes of factories or workshops to which the provisions of the Act shall apply, imposing special obligations on occupiers, conferring on them special powers, or giving them special exemptions. An order, when made, must be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and either House may by special resolution annul it within forty days.

Factory Holidays.—(See also FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN.) No children, young persons, or

women may be employed in any factory or workshop on Sundays, unless both employer and employed are Jews, when under certain well-defined conditions Saturday may be substituted for Sunday. By a Special Order (see **FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901**; **DEFINITION OF TERMS**) dated 1903, work is allowed in creameries on Sundays and holidays during the months of May to October, for a period of three consecutive hours, to be fixed between six o'clock in the morning and seven o'clock in the evening. On Saturday afternoons the period of employment for protected persons terminates earlier than on other days, and, therefore, Saturday afternoon must always be a half-holiday, except in factories where the Home Secretary has sanctioned the substitution of another afternoon for Saturday. Owners of factories for the manufacture of wearing apparel or food, for the printing of newspapers, or factories which are connected with retail shops, or factories in places where a special day has been set apart for a half-holiday, or the market day is Saturday, may by Special Order, 1008 (1907), substitute another day for Saturday. Some of these trades and also hospital laundries in Scotland may have their half-holidays on different days, that is to say, one set of the protected persons employed may take their half-holiday one day in the week and another set on a different day.

Besides Sundays and Saturday afternoons, the workers must be allowed, in England, six other holidays in the year: the four Bank holidays and Christmas Day and Good Friday. A factory owner may however, substitute either one whole holiday or two half-holidays for any of the six days mentioned, but he must affix notice of the change in his factory during the first week in January, and send a copy of the

notice to the inspector (see **FACTORY INSPECTORS**). At least half of the holidays in any year must be between March and October. All the protected persons in a factory must have the same holidays, except where the Secretary of State has authorised otherwise. In Scotland four whole holidays and eight half-holidays (or one whole day instead of any two half days), and in Ireland three whole holidays and six half-holidays (or one day for two half days) must be given.

Factory Inspectors.—The Factory and Workshops Act of 1901 (*q.v.*) provides for the appointment of inspectors, who are given such powers as will enable them to carry the Act into effect. They are appointed and controlled by the Home Secretary, and the administrative office is in Whitehall, London. Inspectors have power to enter by day any place which they may have cause to believe to be a factory or workshop, and to enter, inspect, and examine, either by day or night, at any reasonable time, any factory or workshop, if they have reasonable cause to believe that any person is employed there. They may inspect any papers kept in pursuance of the Act, and examine any persons employed in a factory or workshop. They also have power to enter any school in which half-timers (see **FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT, OF CHILDREN IN**) are being educated, and to prosecute, conduct, or defend in a court of law any proceedings arising under the Factory Act.

Any obstruction offered to an inspector is punishable by fine. All inspectors are furnished with certificates of their appointment, which they must show on entering a factory or workshop.

The figures for the year 1909 showed that the inspectors and

their assistants numbered 200 (of whom seventeen were ladies), while the number of registered factories and workshops was 263,749. The number of visits paid by inspectors amounted to 424,737, the number of prosecutions was 3,723, and the number of non-fatal accidents reported to surgeons and inspectors was 116,554. The fatal accidents in factories and workshops numbered 946. There were 38,569 medical examinations of children under fourteen, 76,483 of young persons between thirteen and fourteen, and 269,554 of young persons between fourteen and sixteen.

Every year, usually in May, the chief inspector issues a report, which forms probably the most interesting Blue-book issued. It contains reports from the superintending inspectors of the South-Eastern, South-Western, Midland, North-Eastern, North-Western, and Northern Districts; from the principal lady inspector (Miss Anderson); from the inspector who has under his charge the enforcement of the Particulars Clause (*q.v.*) in textile factories; from the electrical inspector; and from the medical inspector. Miss Anderson's report reveals in every line her anxiety to render all possible service to the girl and women workers, whose conditions of employment are her special care, and all complaints sent to her are investigated. In 1909 she received 2,019 complaints.

The inspectors, although appointed to carry out the provisions of the Factory Act, also perform certain duties under the Act for the prevention of cruelty to children (*q.v.*), under the Employment of Children Act, under the Notices of Accident Act, under the Children Acts (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), the Workmen's Compensation (*q.v.*) Act, and under the Trade Boards (*q.v.*) Act.

Candidates for the post of inspectors are first nominated by the Home Secretary, and then sit for a qualifying examination.

Factory Legislation.—Without some understanding of the preceding events it is not easy to appreciate or comprehend the consolidation of the law in the Factory and Workshop Act of 1901 (*q.v.*). As those events recede into the background of history, and as new economic arguments are adduced, it becomes increasingly necessary to remember the sufferings of the workers before the State stepped in and regulated their condition. Mr. Cooke Tayler, in his *Modern Factory System*, 1891, says:—

"It is of great and increasing importance that that story be kept in memory; that it should never be suffered to become extinct; as a pitiful and most terrible warning against the preposterous doctrine born of modern modes of thought, that human affairs can be entrusted to impulses of mere cupidity without shocking and degrading consequences."

The system of regulation extending now to every man, woman, and child in factory and workshop began in 1802 with an attempt to improve the conditions of pauper child labour, which were so bad that accounts of them read now like incredible exaggerations. Yet we have abundance of evidence to prove that these pauper children were consigned by the Poor Law guardians to manufacturers to be harassed to the brink of death by excessive labour, and to "be starved to the bone while they were flogged to their work." These unfortunate infants were sent to school from three to five years of age, and at the age of five they were deemed old enough to work in a spinning room, or in the framework knitting trade, for sixteen or seventeen hours daily.

It is interesting to note that the first attempt to improve the condition of these children arose from the endeavour to safeguard the health of more fortunate people. A fever broke out, and Dr. Percival, reporting upon it, called attention to the awful condition in which these children lived and died. In 1784 the magistrates of the county of Lancaster resolved that they would refuse to allow "indentures of parish apprentices, whereby they shall be bound to owners of cotton mills to work in the night or for more than ten hours a day." The good intentions of the magistrates were, however, of no avail, because they had no means of enforcing their orders and no system of inspection. In 1795 the Manchester Board of Health had still to complain that the system of "working children all night was inconsistent with their health." So widely spread and so well known were the iniquities of child employment, that the short "Health and Morals of Apprentices Act," 1802, passed with little or no opposition. It applied to cotton or woollen factories, and provided that the buildings were to be properly ventilated and lime-washed twice a year, and that apprentices should not work more than twelve hours a day and were to receive the rudiments of education. Suitable clothing and adequate sleeping accommodation were to be provided by the masters. Two visitors were to be appointed by the justices of the peace to enforce the Act, but, apparently, these early inspectors rather neglected their duties.

Robert Owen next brought the condition of the workers prominently before the public. He told his fellow-manufacturers in 1813 that because machinery (a recent invention) was improved by being made neat, clean, and well supplied with oil, the more complex

living mechanism would be greatly improved if treated carefully. In a Bill he introduced he proposed to forbid the employment in factories of children under ten years of age, to exclude them from night work, to limit their hours of labour to ten and a half hours a day up to the age of eighteen, and to compel the employers to provide half an hour's instruction a day. Unfortunately, an opposition party had arisen. The manufacturers declared so emphatically that they ought not to be interfered with in the management of their business, that Sir Robert Peel watered down Owen's proposals. The Act passed in 1819 applied only to cotton mills; it fixed the minimum age of employment at nine, and the hours of labour for persons under sixteen at twelve hours daily, exclusive of meal-times; and it contained no provisions for its enforcement. Sir John Cam Hobhouse secured the reduction of the hours of young persons' labour to sixty-nine a week in 1825; and in 1831 the night work of persons under twenty-one was abolished, and the twelve hours' working day extended to all persons under eighteen.

Richard Oastler, the "Factory King," a strong Churchman and a Tory, succeeded in persuading working men to demand a ten-hour working day; and Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, became leader of the ten hours' agitation in Parliament. Then there occurred that struggle between those who desired to restrict the labour of working men directly by prohibiting the use of machinery for more than ten hours a day; and those who, on the other hand, desired to gain the ten hours' day by limiting the hours during which women and children might work.

Milner Gibson said: "It might be thought that by preventing young persons and women of all

ages from working more than ten hours, the labour of male adults was not interfered with. But that was not so. To enact that no young person or woman of any age should work more than ten hours a day was, in fact, to enact that no factory engines should be kept in force more than ten hours." This has proved in practice to be the case. To-day in factories where men, women, and children work together the men work the same number of hours as the women, although the latter are protected, and the former—so far as hours are concerned—are not.

Considerable discussion arose at this time as to how any new law was to be enforced. It was argued that outsiders had no right to enter factories, and the proposal to appoint Government inspectors met with no little opposition from both masters and men. The masters disliked the proposed interference, and the workers assumed that the inspectors would be mere tools in the hands of the manufacturers. But in spite of opposition, the philanthropists and the landowners had their way, and after an inquiry by a Select Committee in 1832, and another by a Royal Commission in 1833 (both of which proved their case to the hilt), they succeeded in passing through Parliament the Act of 1833. This Act applied to all persons under eighteen in textile factories, limiting their hours to sixty-nine per week and twelve per day; child labour under nine was prohibited except in silk mills; the hours of children under eleven (raised to twelve in a year and to thirteen the year following) were restricted to nine a day and forty-eight a week—thus creating the "half-timers" (see FACTORIES, EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN). There were certain minor improvements, but the appointment of four inspectors, with power to

enter factories, take evidence, and make orders was the chief feature of the measure.

Although the length of the working day was limited, the hours between which work might be performed were not fixed, and, consequently, the detection of infractions was exceedingly difficult. Attempts were also made to employ children in relays. Failure to enforce the Act aroused popular indignation, and a fierce struggle was renewed. In 1844 the hours of women were also limited to twelve a day, between 5.30 a.m. and 8.30 p.m.; but still the fight continued for the "ten hours day," between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. (*i.e.*, a continuous period for all workers of twelve hours, including meal-times). Next came the Act of 1847, when the hours of women and young persons were reduced to eleven a day and sixty-three a week, and after a year to ten and fifty-eight respectively. Still the employers were able to keep men working through a fifteen-hour day, by employing the protected persons in overlapping shifts; but, in 1850, Lord Ashley got the day's work fixed for women and young persons between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. or 7 a.m. and 7 p.m., the weekly hours being raised to sixty. Still there was the opportunity of using children in relays, but this, too, was abolished in 1853. The labour of adult men was thus indirectly but effectively regulated.

It was under the 1844 Act that the fencing of machinery was first dealt with (see FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN). The inspectors pointed out that the customary dress of girls and women made them specially liable to be caught by the machinery, and that children when first introduced into the mills were peculiarly exposed to danger. Consequently, no child, young person, or woman was to be allowed to

clean machinery in motion, and a considerable portion of the mechanical power then in use was to be fenced. The provision requiring all mill gearing to be securely fenced was not brought fully into force until 1854 and 1855, when the factory inspectors (*q.v.*) issued three circulars in succession stating that they would require the fencing of all shafts. This aroused the indignation of the factory owners, who formed themselves into an association, which Charles Dickens, in *Household Words*, nicknamed the "Association for the Mangling of Operatives," and which was continuously fighting the factory inspectors, especially on the question of the fencing of machinery. The textile employers declared that it was unfair to saddle them with legislation while allied trades were untouched, but their complaints led to the extension instead of to the repeal of the Factory Acts. Print works, bleach and dye works, and lace works were the first to be included; and in 1867 the proposal to extend the Act to all factories and workshops was received with general favour, a result the more easily attained because the inspectors were able to show that the textile trades had suffered no harm by legislation.

Mr. Walpole, in 1867, added two new measures to the long list of factory acts. The Factory Acts Extension Act was very complicated and full of exceptions. It brought an enormous number of new industries under control, and provided a new definition of a factory as a place where fifty or more persons were employed in manufacture. The Workshops Regulation Act, which was to be administered by the local authorities, was applicable to any establishment in which less than fifty persons were employed, except such factories as were already under the

Factory Act. Unfortunately, the Workshops Act was framed to interfere as little as possible with industry, and, consequently, sufficient account was not taken of the difficulties which beset the inspectors when the period of employment is not fixed between certain hours. Children might work any time between 6 a.m. and 8 p.m., young persons between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m., although children might be employed only under the half-time system, and the hours for young persons and women were restricted to twelve.

From what has already been said, it will be understood that the Factory and Workshops Acts needed to be simplified as well as extended, and in 1876 a Commission was appointed to consider their consolidation, the Act of 1878 being based on its recommendations. The most noteworthy change in the law was the alteration in the definition of a factory. Henceforward the "factory" depended not on the number of persons employed, but on the use of mechanical power, though some places, where steam-power is not used—such as fustian-cutting works—were then, and still are, classed as factories.

It was in connection with this 1878 Bill that Mr. Fawcett accused the men's unions of trying to exclude the women from employment by limiting the number of hours during which they were allowed to work. On every clause of the Bill he moved to omit the word "woman." He was successful only once, and then it seemed as though his victory was dearly bought. Women working in domestic workshops (*q.v.*) were under a certain amount of control as to hours, and it was proposed under the Bill to limit their hours to ten and a half per day, and to insist upon the working day being between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m. This was negatived in

committee. As usual, it was the trades most in need of regulation which were refused the help of the State, while better organised and better paid workers rejoiced in shorter hours. Very many of the textile and non-textile factories work fewer hours than they are allowed by law, while in the unregulated trades long hours continued to be the rule and not the exception.

In 1891 the special exemptions of women's workshops were repealed, and some important changes were made in the administration of the law, notably the transference to local authorities of the supervision of the sanitary condition of workshops. Other duties were laid upon the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) by amending the Acts of 1895 and 1897, but these have been already considered in the separate articles dealing with the consolidating Act of 1901, which is now in force (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901).

Factory Outworkers.—In the case of persons employed in such classes of work as the Home Secretary may from time to time specify by Special Order (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901), the occupier of every factory, workshop, or place from which such work is given out, and any contractor employed by him, is bound to keep lists showing (*a*) the names and (*b*) the addresses of all persons directly employed by him, either as workmen or contractors, outside the factory or workshop, and (*c*) the places where they are employed. These lists must be sent to the district or borough council of the place in which the factory is situated, in order that the district or borough council may have the premises in which the outworkers live and do their work inspected by the council's inspectors. If the workers live in one district and the giver-out

of the work in another, then the outworkers are inspected by officers from the council of the district in which they live. The factory inspector (*q.v.*) has power to examine an occupier's lists of outworkers and to require copies or extracts from these lists. There are over twenty home work trades which have now been brought under this section of the Act, and they include for example "the making, cleaning, washing, altering, ornamenting, finishing, and repairing of wearing apparel; the making of paper bags and boxes; and the carding of hooks, eyes, and buttons. Home work is prohibited for a specified time in places where there is or has been infectious disease (*q.v.*). The Particulars Clause (*q.v.*) of the Act applies to nearly all home-workers. (See also SWEATED INDUSTRIES.)

"Fair Wages Resolution."—(See PREFERENTIAL DEALING.)

Fans in Factories.—(See DANGEROUS TRADES, and FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Farm Colonies.—(See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Farm Schools.—(See also AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS.) The term "farm school" has in recent years been used in several instances, instead of the older term of industrial school or reformatory, it being considered, and not without reason, that the fact of a boy having to state that he had been educated in an industrial or reformatory school carried with it to the minds of some employers a certain stigma, whereas a statement that he has been brought up in a farm school has no prejudicial effect. The old custom of establishing and maintaining industrial schools and reformatories in the centre of large cities is now much discredited, and such institutions whenever possible are placed in the country. The inmates, while

following the routine of an ordinary school in their earlier years, are specially instructed in agriculture, the cultivation of flowers, and farm duties generally. Since 1908 boys from several schools have been sent for examination before the Royal Horticultural Society, and an encouraging number have gained certificates. A larger proportion of ex-Home Office schoolboys go to farm service than to any other employment, except the Army; and of those who left the schools in 1906, 1907, and 1908 at the end of 1909, 1,533 were employed on farms, whilst 59 were dairymen and 97 were gardeners (see DISPOSALS FROM HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS). The largest, oldest, and best known farm school is Redhill, which provides for 300 boys. In some instances, Poor Law authorities have set up similar schools, but these are not under Home Office inspection, although they appear to be equally successful.

Farm Work.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Feather Trade.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Federation of Working Boys' Clubs.—(See BOYS' CLUBS.)

Federation of Working Girls' Clubs.—(See GIRLS' CLUBS.)

Federation of Working Men's Social Clubs.—(See WORKING MEN'S CLUBS.)

Feeble-minded.—(See AFTER-CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN, EPILEPTICS, HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED and ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Feeding of Infants.—(See also DAY NURSERIES, HEALTH VISITING, SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERS, and SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATION.) Malnutrition leads to nearly

all infantile complaints, and the rate of mortality among artificially fed infants is three to five times as great as among the breast-fed. Artificially fed infants are specially liable to succumb to infantile diarrhoea.

All babies should, if possible, be breast-fed for at least the first six months, being fed at regular intervals of two to four hours, according to age. If hand-feeding is necessary, a cup and spoon, or a special boat-shaped bottle, with rubber teat (no tube), should be used, and cow's milk, diluted with water, with a little cream and sugar added; the milk being sterilized, unless known to be untainted. Human milk contains much less proteid, a little less fat, and more sugar than that of the cow, which no "preparation" can adequately "humanize."

Additional food can be given when teething begins, and the infant completely weaned about the ninth or tenth month. Regularity both in time and quantity of feeding and great cleanliness are essential.

The uneducated constantly give solid food to infants even in the first few weeks—as they say, "what we have ourselves,"—with disastrous results. Patent foods and milk condensed without its cream are also quite unsuitable for young babies, though often used.

The only adequate reasons for bottle-feeding are: (1) The physical incapacity of the mother; (2) her unavoidable absence at work or otherwise. To meet these needs, milk depôts (*q.v.*) have been established. Still more important is the educational work carried on against infant mortality (*q.v.*), to influence public opinion in favour of breast-feeding, and to provide poor mothers with such practical assistance as shall prevent them from being unable to fulfil their maternal duties, either through malnutrition or from having to go out to work.

Feeding of School Children.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES.) By the compulsory enforcement of school attendance, some people consider that the Education Authority incurs the responsibility of ensuring that the child shall be in a position to take advantage of the education offered to him, and must logically make every effort to attain this end though the letter of the law retains the responsibility of the parent. It has been assumed that the public provision of meals assists to this end. In Paris the "Cantine Scolaïre" was established in 1879 by the Prefecture de la Seine, the administration in each arrondissement being entrusted to the mayor and the Committee of the "Caisse des Ecoles." This movement has steadily increased. About a third of the parents pay partially or wholly for meals. In Marseilles about 10 per cent. of the children attend the canteens. In England the problem of underfed school children is most intense in the great cities, with their seasonal fluctuations of trade and casual labour. The number of underfed children has been variously estimated at a percentage of 33 by Dr. Leslie Mackenzie for Scotland; for London, 16 by Dr. Eicholz, 10-15 by Dr. Macnamara, and 2 by Dr. Kerr. This apparent discrepancy may probably be explained by a lack of distinction between the "underfed" child, who is suffering from actual lack of food, and the "ill-fed" child, who is below the proper standard through unsuitable food. The existence for many years of numerous voluntary associations for providing free meals is an evidence of the extent of the problem. Special attention was drawn to it by the publication of the Reports of the Royal Commission on Physical Training, 1903, the Report on Physical Deterioration, 1904, and the Inter-departmental Committee

on Medical Inspection and the Feeding of Elementary School Children (1905), all of which recommended that definite provision should be made for dealing with the problem, and pointed out that voluntary associations are inadequate by reason of their fluctuating and insufficient financial support, and their liability to be abused with impunity by the drunken or unscrupulous parent.

The first official attempt to grapple with the problem was the issue of the Relief (School Children) Order by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) in 1905, by which certain provisions of the Poor Law were adapted to the relief of destitute school children, such cases being reported to the board of guardians by officers of the education authority. The result in most places was a rapid diminution in the number fed, owing probably to the failure of education authorities to take action and to the dislike of unsympathetic Poor Law methods of investigation. The ill-success of this scheme led to the introduction of a Bill for the Provision of School Meals. The report of the Select Committee recommended further action, and on December 21st, 1906, the Education (Provision of Meals) Act came into force. This authorises local education authorities (*q.v.*) to spend money, within the limit of a halfpenny rate, in providing food for school children, to ensure that, so far as possible, no child shall be prevented by insufficiency of food from profiting by the education offered. Up to July 31st, 1908, fifty-one education authorities had obtained this authorisation. Up to March 31st, 1909, sanction had been given to eighty-five authorities, forty-nine for the first time. Before the expenditure is authorised, it is necessary, under the terms of the

Act, for the local education authority to pass resolutions that there are children who are unable, by reason of lack of food, to take full advantage of the education offered to them, and to ascertain that funds other than public funds are not available or are inadequate. The education authority has to pass a formal resolution in respect of each local financial year. The Act is permissive (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT), and enforces no obligation on any local education authority which does not see fit to put it into operation.

The first step in administration is the adoption by the Local Authority of the Provision of Meals Act. The Board of Education (*q.v.*) will then sanction the expenditure of a certain sum for meals. A canteen committee is formed from members of the education authority and voluntary charitable associations for the work of organising meals and selecting necessitous children. Children are nominated by head teachers, attendance officers, school nurses, health visitors (*q.v.*) or the medical officer, or any person noticing underfed children. Inquiries are then made by a member of the committee, or by an attendance officer into the home circumstances of the child's parents, and the result stated on a report form. These forms are then submitted to a committee, which decides whether or no the child is to be fed, and if the former, whether free of cost or at a small charge. The average cost of meals is 1½d. for dinner and 1d. for breakfast. The latter usually consists of cocoa and bread and butter; the former of nourishing and substantial dishes, such as stew, soup, and suet puddings.

Hitherto it has not been permissible to include kitchens and dining-rooms in public elementary schools (*q.v.*) to be built with loans

charged upon the rates; but henceforth, when desired by the authority the reasonable provision of such adjuncts will be passed by the Board in school plans. The cost, or part cost of the meals, may be charged to the parent if he is in a position to pay it, and is recoverable by legal proceedings. Failure to pay does not subject the parent to loss of franchise or any other disability.

Female Aid Society.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Fever Hospitals.—(See ISOLATION HOSPITALS.)

Fines.—(See TRUCK ACTS.)

Fire.—Failure to provide a "fire-guard" is a punishable offence by the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), if through the neglect a child under the age of seven years is killed or suffers serious injury. Throw a rug, table-cover, or any similar thing closely around a burning person, in order to extinguish the flames. If the body is burnt, put the sufferer to bed and send for medical aid. Linen rag soaked in a mixture of equal parts of lime water and linseed oil forms a good dressing. Cold water is to be avoided. If it be necessary to enter a burning room, remember that it is comparatively free from smoke along the ground, and so proceed on hands and knees. A silk handkerchief, wet sponge, or any flannel substance, wetted and drawn over the mouth and nose, permits free breathing, and to a great extent excludes smoke from the lungs. In the case of a burning building, assistance may be rendered by placing ladders and throwing ropes from adjoining buildings. Bedding may be collected in case the inmates jump from the windows, or a blanket held by several persons may serve the purpose. In entering a house or breaking a door, care should be taken not to allow the

entrance of any more air than is absolutely unavoidable, as it will only fan the flames. These and other useful hints may be obtained in the report of the Society for the Protection of Life from Fire.

Fire Insurance.—Fire insurance differs from life assurance (*q.v.*) in that under the former the assured can only recover the actual amount of his losses up to the maximum fixed in the policy, whilst a life assurance policy is for a fixed and definite sum. Even if policies be taken out with different companies to cover the same risk, in case of fire the assured is only entitled in all to the actual amount of his loss. This will be the difference between the market value of the property insured immediately before and immediately after the fire. It does not mean the original cost price, nor the cost of replacement. It follows from this, too, that as in life assurance, there must be an insurable interest on the part of the person effecting the insurance. Careful attention should be given to the conditions stated on the policy. Fraudulent answers to questions or the non-disclosure of material information will render the policy void, as will also any alteration in the risk not contemplated in the policy (*e.g.*, structural alterations or a new occupier). An assignment may also affect the risk, and permission should be obtained from the company before it is carried through.

Most fire policies are for a fixed period, usually a year, and compensation will be payable if the fire breaks out at any moment before the complete expiration of the last day of the period specified.

There is, of course, no obligation on the part of a company to renew a policy either at all or on the old terms.

First Aid.—(See **AMBULANCE WORK.**)

Florists' Work.—(See **TRADES FOR GIRLS.**)

Fluctuations of Employment.—(See **UNEMPLOYMENT.**)

"Following Up."—Medical inspection of school children (*q.v.*) if not carefully "followed up" may be useless. The inspection may be wasted, or the facilities existing for the prevention and treatment of disease may be ignored. "Following up" is a proceeding in which parents, teachers, school nurses, attendance officers, and children's care committees (*q.v.*) all co-operate in order that the defects and diseases revealed by the inspector may be removed or combated. The parents should be encouraged to attend the inspection, in order that their interest may be aroused and that they may receive good practical advice from the doctor. It is important that when the parents have been made aware of any defects in their children, some worker or teacher should ascertain what treatment, if any, has been obtained. The influence of the teacher in this matter is great, and many have given much time and thought to it. The school nurse is perhaps of more value in "following up" than in the actual inspection. She can visit the homes of the children, and become friend and counsellor of their parents. The attendance officer's co-operation is important, especially in regard to the readmission of children excluded by the school doctor (*q.v.*). Most necessary of all for "following up" is an efficient children's care committee (*q.v.*). The whole subject is dealt with at length in Section 3 of the Annual Report for 1909 of the Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education (*q.v.*), who says: "Speaking generally, there is evidence that many local education authorities are appreciating the need for this work, and a determined

effort is being made to secure that steps shall be taken to obtain for each child requiring it the attention and appropriate treatment of which it stands in need."

Forster's Act.—The Elementary Education Bill of 1870, establishing a State system to supplement voluntary efforts (see EDUCATION), was introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. W. E. Forster in his capacity as vice-president of the council, so it is sometimes known as Forster's Act.

Founding.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Franchise.—The exercise of the franchise is a seriously neglected duty, and social workers may do much to arouse those with whom they are brought into contact to a sense of their responsibilities. Comparatively speaking, it is a small matter to which candidate a man gives his vote provided that he takes some trouble to know why he gives his vote. If possible, he should be persuaded to hear both sides of the question. Religious bodies may do valuable work in this connection by giving opportunities to the men connected with them of hearing representatives of the contending sections, whether in Parliamentary or municipal affairs. Before a man can vote in any election he must be placed on the register, of which the particulars are posted on church doors and other public places. The following have the right to be registered in counties as Parliamentary electors:—

(1) Freeholders possessed of an estate of inheritance of 40s. annual value.

(2) Freeholders for life, or lives, possessed of an estate of 40s. annual value, who actually occupy, or were possessed on June 7th, 1832, or who acquired their estate after that date, by marriage, marriage settlement, devise, or promotion to a benefice or office.

(3) Persons possessed for life or lives of lands or tenements of any tenure of annual value of £5.

(4) Holders of leases either originally for sixty years of £5 annual value, or for twenty years of £10 value yearly.

(5) Occupiers of lands or tenements of £10 clear yearly value.

(6) Inhabitant householders, including persons who occupy by virtue of office, service, or employment.

(7) Lodgers.

At elections in boroughs the last three are entitled to the franchise, and also persons qualified under franchises specially retained by the Act of 1832 relating to municipal corporations. The precise application of these definitions to particular individuals involves questions which may give rise to disputes to be decided by the revising barrister, who acts as judge between the contending parties. It is impossible to attempt anything in the nature of a complete explanation of the law on the subject, but one or two popular phrases may receive definition. Among householders there is the compound householder, who derives his name from the fact that his rates are compounded by the landlord, and he, therefore, pays them as part of his rent. The lodger sometimes borders upon the "latch-key voter," which is an wholly misleading expression, because the possession or want of a key may be quite immaterial. When a landlord lets out his house in tenements the amount of his control and the rights of his tenants involve questions to be decided upon the facts of each case when there is dispute as to the right to the vote. The right of owners of property to vote in each place where they have interests and are accordingly known as "plural voters" is considered a grievance by the advocates of "one man, one vote."

The election to the county or borough council is hardly less important in modern times than the Parliamentary election, in view of the larger number of adoptive Acts (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT) and the extensive powers of local authorities in respect to the health, education, and general conditions of life of the people. The great difference between the qualifications for a vote is that women may vote at the elections of local authorities. Stated in general terms, every person (male or female) who has during the twelve months preceding the 15th July in any year occupied any building (or any land of the clear yearly value of £10) rated to the relief of the poor, has resided in the borough or parish, or within seven miles of it, during that period (or six months in the case of the £10 occupier), and has paid all the rates in respect to that property up to the 20th July, is qualified to be placed on the register, except lunatics (*q.v.*), aliens (*q.v.*), and other persons disqualified to possess all electoral rights. Practically the same register serves for the election of parish and district councillors and boards of guardians, but the interest taken in them is very small.

Freemen.—Public attention is only directed to the possession of the freedom of a city or borough when some notable person receives it as an honorary distinction. But occasionally it may be found that some person in want claims to possess by inheritance the freedom of his native town. In that case the best course of procedure is to collect all the evidence available in support of the claim and lay it, with a statement of the person's needs, before the town clerk, since charitable relief can sometimes be given to freemen when it is not open to other people.

French Polishing.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Fresh Air Fund.—(See also CHILDREN'S COUNTRY HOLIDAY FUND and SCHOOL TREATS.) An appeal was first made in 1892 to send poor East London children for a day in the country, but the organisation has been extended to other towns in the United Kingdom, and to sending some of the children for a fortnight's holiday. The expenses of the fund, which is worked in co-operation with the Ragged School Union (see WAIFS AND STRAYS), are borne by the promoters, Messrs. C. Arthur Pearson, the *Standard* and the *Daily Express*. The funds are raised through the publications of that firm, and assistance has been received from all parts of the world, including many ships and newspapers published in other parts of the empire. The children are drawn, "according only to their need," from every town in the United Kingdom with a population of 90,000 or more. They are selected by local committees which have been formed in the different centres to control the work in their own districts. The expenditure is arranged so that a day's outing is provided for 9d., a fortnight's holiday for 10s., and a day's outing for a party of 200 children, with the necessary attendant, for £82. As many as 8,000 children have been sent for an outing on one day.

Friendly Societies.—(See also THRIFT and TRADE UNIONS.) Against those larger contingencies of life, such as prolonged sickness, premature death, or serious accident, it is impossible for the man of small means to make adequate provision by the exercise of individual thrift alone. The risks to which any one person is exposed are too great for individual provision. But if a man can share his risks with his fellows, taking in return his share of theirs, such a

provision is brought within his reach. It is this great work which friendly societies are accomplishing.

The extent to which the principle of associated thrift has grown may to some extent be gauged from the membership of societies in the United Kingdom registered under the Friendly Societies' Act, which at 31st December, 1908, had reached a total of over twelve million persons. And besides registered societies, which are, as a general rule, of a more permanent and stable character, there is a large number of societies having as their object the provision of insurance against one or more of life's contingencies, which, however, have not availed themselves of the advantages of registry, and the extent of whose membership, therefore, cannot be computed. In face of these facts, one cannot but express astonishment at the capacity of the British people for organised thrift, and a regret that it is so often diverted into so unsuitable channels as to be rendered abortive.

Friendly societies differ so much in the scope of the benefits which they offer, and the manner in which they transact their business, that, in attempting a consideration of the work which they do, the best way seems to be to classify them into broad groups and deal with each separately. The following classes of society will, therefore, now be considered in turn: Ordinary friendly societies, friendly societies with branches, deposit societies, dividing societies, collecting societies, burial societies, and unregistered friendly societies.

Ordinary Friendly Societies. The membership of ordinary friendly societies (excluding societies with branches) reaches nearly three and a half millions. This number, however, includes the members of deposit, burial, and dividing societies, which

will be treated separately later. The ordinary friendly society generally offers insurance against sickness and death, and frequently, in addition, provides medical aid, accident allowances, and old age pay (see PENSIONS IN OLD AGE), and in some cases other benefits, which vary considerably in particular societies. The ground covered by ordinary friendly societies may be gathered from the two following examples: (a) shows the work of an actual society in an agricultural district—it has about 1,000 members and nearly £40,000 funds; (b) a large urban society with more than a quarter of a million members and three and a quarter million pounds in funds.

(a) "The objects of this Society are to provide against sickness and infirmity with pension for life after 65, and a sum of money at death. Contributions payable vary with age of members and rate of benefit assured for; thus, at age of 15 (next birthday), to receive 10s. per week in sickness for 52 weeks, with half pay afterwards as long as sickness lasts, 5s. per week at 65, and £5 at death, a member would pay 2s. 4d. per month, and 1s. per quarter (for medical aid with surgical appliances); at age of 20, for same benefits, 2s. 6½d.; and at 25, 3s. 0¾d."

In this society it is worthy of mention that, in 1909, there were no less than 155 members in receipt of old age pensions from its funds of from 4s. to 8s. weekly.

(b) "The objects of the Society are: (1) Relief of members during sickness; (2) residence in convalescent homes; (3) members' wives' lying-in; (4) members' death allowance; (5) members' wives' death allowance; (6) allowance for imprisonment for debt; (7) relief of members in distressed circumstances; (8) insurance against loss of tools by fire.

"Candidates for admission must be over 18 and under 30 years of age, and be in receipt of a weekly wage of at least 24s. There are no trade restrictions except in the case of miners. Entrance fee, 2s. 6d. Freedom to full benefits after 12 months' membership. The contribution consists of a fixed rate of 7s. per quarter for sickness allowance, and a proportionate levy in respect of other benefits, etc. Average quarterly contributions under 10s.

"Benefits assured: Sick pay—The allowance payable to free members during sickness is 18s. per week for 26 weeks. Should illness continue beyond that period, 9s. per week is paid for a further period of 26 weeks, and after the expiration of that time, an allowance not exceeding 4s. per week is continued for remainder of the illness. Death allowance—The sum payable on the death of a free member is £20. Member's wife's death, £10. Proportionate benefit before freedom. Lying-in allowance—On the lying-in of a free member's wife, the sum of £1 10s. is paid. . . ."

Friendly Societies with Branches. There are only about 170 such societies registered, but they cover over 20,000 branches, with an aggregate membership of two and three-quarter millions and over twenty-six million pounds in accumulated funds. Their large membership gives them an advantage, which is shared by the large centralised friendly societies, that risks are more easily calculable, economies can be effected in management, and investments can be more widely distributed, thus giving greater security with a more remunerative return, while such investments are more easily effected where large sums are accumulating and so bring a quicker return in interest. In favour of the smaller societies must be advanced the large amount of

labour which is performed voluntarily in such societies, and the closer control which can be maintained over the officials and the working of the society by the members. These advantages, however, do not weigh so heavily against the large society carrying on its operations through branches. Much voluntary work is done in connection with the branches, and members can exercise a large measure of control over the administration of the funds. In effect, what a friendly society does for its members in equalising their risks, the large society with branches does for its branches in distributing their risks over the whole membership of the society.

Deposit Societies. These societies, like dividing societies, divide their surplus funds among their members, but instead of sharing them out they allocate them to the members' accounts. It is a controversial matter, which time alone can settle, as to whether this class of society suffers to any extent from the disadvantage, which, as will be seen later, attaches to dividing societies; but even if with the advancing age of the members, deposit societies tend to decay, the aged members who remain will not be left without resources—they will have their deposits to fall back upon. A deposit society has this attraction as compared with an ordinary friendly society—that its members can, in case of necessity, realise their interest in the society, and that the sum to which a member is entitled on retirement or death increases with the time during which he pays his contributions. Against this must be set the fact that should he die early, his representatives will not be entitled to so much as if he had paid the same contribution to an ordinary society. The deposit society combines individual saving with associated provisions for sickness.

Dividing Societies. This class is distinguished by the fact that funds are not, as a rule, accumulated to meet future contingencies, any surplus being divided periodically among the members, generally at the end of each year. Usually, death payments are met by a special levy upon the members. The disadvantage suffered by this class of society is due to the fact that the popularity of dividing societies is largely affected by the amount of their dividends. They are apt to flourish for a number of years, but when a large proportion of the members reach an age at which sickness is more often experienced and death levies become more frequent while the annual dividend is consequently diminished, then new members are attracted to more recently established societies which promise a larger dividend and less frequent death levies. The old members who remain find themselves without accumulated funds, and nothing but their own slender resources to fall back on. Some societies, however, annually divide a portion of their funds and still accumulate large reserves. There is no doubt that an annual dividend is an added inducement to membership of a friendly society, the difficulty is to make it large enough to be attractive and yet not prejudice the future stability of the society. This is apt to require a larger contribution than the average friendly society member is prepared to pay.

Collecting Societies. There are only fifty-three of these societies registered as friendly societies, but their importance may be gathered from the fact that their membership in 1908 exceeded six and a half million persons. They are distinguished from ordinary friendly societies by the receiving of contributions by means of collectors at a greater distance than ten miles from

their registered offices. Their main business is the insurance of sums at death—"burial" money, or lump sums payable after a period of years, generally termed "endowments." Some also insure against sickness, but as in the aggregate, in 1908, they paid in sick pay only about £17,000 against over £1,000,000 in sums at death, such insurance does not seem to be very popular in this class of society.

The disadvantages suffered by the members of collecting societies are many. Frequently they are scattered over large areas, and can exercise little control in the management of the society. The expenses of management are naturally exceedingly high owing to the expense of collection. They frequently amount to as much as 50 per cent. of the contributions received; and, indeed, in 1908 the total amount expended by collecting societies in management expenses was almost equal to the whole amount expended in benefits. These societies are enabled to pay such heavy expenses of management and yet offer comparatively high benefits in relation to the contributions demanded, owing to the income which they enjoy from a continued influx of new members, who in periods of prosperity are induced by the importunities of agents and collectors to join a society, and as soon as a period of depression comes are unable to keep up their payments, and so forfeit the benefits to which a continuous payment would have entitled them. In 1908, for example, 1,864,418 new members joined collecting societies, while 1,433,963 left from causes other than death. Of course, some of these left because their endowment policies matured; but as the amount paid in "endowments" was less than £75,000, demissions from such causes may be neglected.

Taking one large society as an

example of the relation of benefits to contributions, a member joining, aged twenty-one, pays 1d. per week to insure £8 6s. at death.

On the other hand, it is contended that collecting societies cater for a class who, if not importuned by collectors, would make no provision. The members are undoubtedly, for the most part, the very poor of our great cities, that class which suffers most from the effects of casual employment. But, in any case, it is a matter of regret that in so many instances their thrift should be of no avail.

Burial Societies. These societies flourish most extensively in Lancashire. They do not aim to provide sickness benefit, and the ground covered by them is much the same as that of the collecting societies. In fact, burial societies frequently employ collectors, but confine their operations to a radius of 10 miles from their registered offices.

Unregistered Friendly Societies. The position of such societies may be gathered from the following quotation from the *Guide Book of the Registry of Friendly Societies*, a handbook published at the price of 6d., which those interested in promoting or furthering the work of friendly societies cannot do better than obtain. The Registrar there says: "It cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the Registrar cannot ensure the good management of societies, and that the mere fact of registry affords no guarantee that a society is solvent or even honest. . . . But registry affords to the sensible and honest, valuable help towards good management in many ways, and it does also bring to bear upon the incapable and the dishonest various checks which are wholly wanting in respect of unregistered bodies." In view of this carefully considered statement, it is not surprising to find that the great majority of those organisations,

which figure in the Press as "slate clubs," with their harvest of defaulting treasurers just before the Christmas share out, are unregistered. These bodies, still more than collecting societies, flourish among the very poor of our great cities, among whom, as has already been said, the evils of casual labour are most pronounced. Probably there is no greater obstacle to associated thrift among the workers than discontinuity of employment (see UNEMPLOYMENT).

Given continuity of employment, even with the most meagre wage, the workers seem quick to unite and strengthen by association their provision against life's contingencies. The organisations established even under such conditions are often of a permanent, sound, and thoroughly well-conducted character. Many such have been established and are still flourishing among agricultural labourers, who, as a class, have a lower money-wage than any other, but whose employment is generally continuous. The efforts of the casual labourer to make provision for the future are generally spasmodic, and as often as not fruitless. With the ever-recurring spectre of long spells of enforced idleness, with its accompanying misery and privation before him, it is small wonder that his horizon becomes narrowed, so that the contingencies of the distant future are dwarfed and overshadowed by the possibilities of the immediate present.

Fruit Pickers.—(See HOP AND FRUIT PICKERS.)

Fur Sewing.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Gambling.—(See BETTING.)

Garden Cities.—(See also CO-PARTNERSHIP HOUSING, OVERCROWDING, and TOWN PLANNING.) The Garden Cities movement owes its initiation to Mr. Ebenezer

Howard's book, entitled *Garden Cities of To-morrow*, in which he put forward a project for relieving the congestion in crowded cities by an organised redistribution of the industrial population upon the land in new model towns, aided by a concerted movement of manufacturers and others to some suitable site selected for the purpose. The main features of Garden Cities under Mr. Howard's scheme are: (1) The purchase of a large agricultural estate to be carefully planned so as to provide a broad belt of agricultural land round the town, thus giving the inhabitants enjoyment for all time of the combined advantages of town and country life, with a market for the agricultural tenant brought to their door. (2) The provision for manufacturers and others of sites for works, stores and houses, under leases which, while giving security to tenants for all improvements made by them, would secure to the community the increase value of the land to be expended for the benefit of the town. (3) The retention of a very large amount of open space for recreative purposes and the allowance of land for a large garden to each house. (4) The method proposed is the formation of a company to let and develop the land, and possibly to build dwellings, but to restrict the net profits of such company to cumulative dividend of from 4 to 5 per cent.

In 1903 the first Garden City, Ltd., was registered with a capital of £300,000, and a site was purchased at Letchworth, Herts, containing 3,800 acres, and costing £40 per acre. It is thirty-four miles from King's Cross and one and a half miles from Hitchin. There are two main divisions, the town area of 1,200 acres in the centre surrounded by the agricultural belt of 2,600 acres. Over a dozen

factories have been built, and a large number of houses erected, the population having grown from 400 to 5,000 in five years. Gas works, water works, electricity works, and sewage works have been established with ten miles of tree-planted roads, and 200 acres set aside for open spaces. The vital statistics show a death rate (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS) of under twelve per thousand, and an infant mortality (*q.v.*) rate of less than ninety per thousand births for the past seven years. In some respects there have been departures from Mr. Howard's ideals, but his proposals as to communal land ownership, planning of main roads and side roads, the formation of agricultural belts, the division of land into manufacturing, trading, and residential districts, the reservation of open spaces, the provisions of new types of roads, and the grouping of houses, with the leasing of land to those representing varied forms of building enterprise are all to be found more or less exemplified. The original capital was, perhaps, too small for the development expenses of such a big undertaking, but there is no doubt that its ultimate commercial success will be an accomplished fact. The marvel is, not that mistakes have been made and that difficulties have still to be overcome, but rather that in so short a space of time so much has been accomplished.

There has been no second Garden City of the type of Letchworth, but in the beginning of 1911 a company was formed to develop the King's College Estate at Northwood and Ruislip, in Middlesex, some fifteen miles from Charing Cross, under the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, mainly as a residential Garden City, subject to conditions and limitations necessarily imposed by its proximity to

London. Application is being made by the local district council for a town planning scheme which will enable the existing bye-laws to be modified, and secure improved access to railway stations and adjoining towns. A town planning competition has resulted in the adoption of the main features of a plan which divides the estate into four areas for different classes of building. Sites are shown for recreation ground, woods, lakes, ornamental waters, shopping centre, public squares, and all kinds of buildings suitably grouped. The area devoted to building plots is 837 acres, to open spaces 255 acres, and to roads 184 acres.

This new type of development differs from the garden suburb in being detached from the city which feeds it, rather than forming a contiguous fringe as at Hampstead. The advantages are that a more or less open space intervenes between it and London, and it will be possible for a district so separated to preserve its own civic life and other features belonging to the small town rather than to the suburb.

Garden City and Town Planning Association.—Founded in 1899, this Association was inspired by Mr. Ebenezer Howard's book, *Garden Cities of To-morrow*. The chief objects of the Association are:—

(1) The proper planning of all land, whether urban or rural, which is likely to be used for building purposes.

(2) The most satisfactory and beneficial method of Town Planning (*q.v.*) consists in the building of new towns in country districts on well thought out principles, such as the Garden City of Letchworth, designed from the outset to secure the healthful and adequate housing of its whole population, so that the use of the land being restricted, new towns, unhampered by any

heritage of mistakes shall never become overcrowded with houses (see **OVERCROWDING**), and shall, when built, be permanently surrounded by a wide belt of agricultural and park lands.

(3) The creation of garden suburbs on similar principles for the immediate relief of existing towns.

(4) The building of garden villages (*q.v.*) for properly housing the working classes near their work.

(5) The acquisition of open spaces, and the improvement of existing towns and villages on Garden City principles.

(6) The removal of factories from congested areas to country districts.

(7) The provision of small holdings (*q.v.*) in proximity to towns, together with measures for the disposal of agricultural produce to the advantage of the home producer and the consumer.

The first Garden City, Letchworth, is the direct outcome of the work of this Association, the headquarters of which are in London, while branches exist at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, East London, Letchworth, Leicester and Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The Association has also encouraged the formation of similar associations in Germany, France, Holland, Sweden, Italy and America. The latest of the applications for help which have reached it comes from the promoters of a Russian Garden City.

As an outcome of the work of the Association a small company has been formed, called "The Town Planning and Garden Cities Company, Ltd.," having power to take options on estates offered for sale, provide plans for proposed suburbs, give financial advice and temporary assistance when some definite scheme is brought before it. In this way the Company can act as the "preliminary syndicate

when necessary and when desired, it being quite understood that the object of the Company is only to assist and not to retain any scheme, but to hand it over to local management as soon as desirable." Secretary, Ewart G. Culpin, Esq., 31, Birkbeck Bank Chambers, W.C.

Garden Villages and Suburbs.—The basis of garden villages or suburbs is in the provision of improved dwellings with open spaces and gardens to be enjoyed therewith and the organisation of village communities with facilities for the enjoyment of full and healthy lives, and for meeting the religious and social need of the people in a more satisfactory manner than has hitherto characterised newly developed areas.

The chief garden villages are at Bournville, Port Sunlight, Earswick and Woodlands, where they have been established in the neighbourhood of some large industry, mainly, but not altogether, for the accommodation of the workmen employed by the founders of the village.

The features characterising healthy houses (see GARDEN CITIES AND TOWN PLANNING) were first embodied in these villages, and the results have been most satisfactory from every point of view.

Port Sunlight, founded by Mr. W. H. Lever, has some 800 houses of all kinds, but mainly cottages, many of which are handsome, and all of which have large well-kept gardens. The village has a gymnasium, an open-air theatre, and open-air swimming bath, two large halls, a men's social club with bowling green attached, shops of various kinds, a girl's institute, a free library and museum, a technical institute, handsome school buildings and a church, the whole scheme of building being so devised as to give the village a quiet, pretty, and comparatively

old-fashioned appearance. The death rate in the village for seven years averaged only 9·8 per thousand, while the children were shown by careful investigation to be taller, and heavier than those of equal ages among the children of well-to-do workmen in the neighbouring town of Liverpool.

Bournville village, founded by Mr. George Cadbury on 502 acres of his Bournville estate, is now the property of a trust, under which the funds are to be used in the provision, erection and improvement of dwellings for the working classes. There are 630 houses, each set well back from the road with an average garden space of 600 yards, and arranged in blocks of four or semi-detached. Gardens are laid out in advance for the tenant with lines of fruit trees at the end; the average produce per garden is 1s. 11d. per week, or twelve times the produce when the land was pasture land. This return of £60 per acre is a striking confirmation of the value of that intensive cultivation of the soil which can be effected by the multiplication of large gardens among the dwellings of the poor. There are also 200 allotments which, with the gardens, are supervised by two professional gardeners, while the tenants have formed a co-operative society (*q.v.*) for the purchase of garden requisites, the arrangement of lectures and the holding of flower shows. The population is now 3,800, the death rate (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS) for five years has been one-third of the death rate in central Birmingham, and the infant mortality (*q.v.*) has been one-half. Bournville boys at twelve years of age are 2½ inches taller than boys in Birmingham slums and 3 inches larger round the chest. The cottages pay about 4 per cent. net on the cost of building, and the net revenue is about

£6,000, although only one-third of the estate has been covered.

Earswick model village, founded in 1904 by Mr. Joseph Rowntree, is two and a half miles north of York, and comprises 120 acres with open spaces of from ten to twelve acres for recreation, and a number of cottages of three main classes built in groups of four. The average size of garden is about 350 square yards, and the general arrangements are similar to Bournville, but a special feature is the new type of roadway, which is comparatively narrow—about 18 feet—but with verges of grass about 6 feet wide between the roadway and the footpath on each side of it. The gardens adjoin this so that from house to house there is an actual width of 50 feet.

Woodlands Colliery Village was founded by Mr. A. B. Markham, of Brodsworth Colliery, for the purpose of housing colliers employed in the new pits recently opened near Doncaster.

Garden suburbs have been mainly developed by the various co-partnership housing (*q.v.*) societies, but the Hampstead garden suburb, which is being constructed on 240 acres of land adjoining Hampstead Heath, is also being developed on garden city lines by the Garden Suburb Development Company, which is also operating on the Gidea Park garden suburb, near Romford. Some of the beautiful sites have been let to persons who can afford to pay a large sum for their land and to have extensive gardens, but about a third of the area has been reserved for the Hampstead Tenants Society, which builds a number of houses for the working classes not exceeding twelve on any given acre besides making provision for greens and recreation grounds. The Hampstead Trust already pays a dividend of 5 per cent. as a result of its operation.

Sir John Reckitt is establishing a well-built garden suburb near Hull with all the good features mentioned in connection with similar schemes.

Garden Work.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Gardner's Trust for the Blind.—(See BLIND, PENSION SOCIETIES FOR THE.)

Gilchrist Trust.—Dr. John Gilchrist was a surgeon in the East India Company's service, who recognised that effective intercourse with the natives can only be secured by a knowledge of the language. Having devoted much time to the study of Hindustani he compiled grammars and a dictionary by which others might be led to follow his example. He died in 1841, leaving his property to trustees "for the benefit, advancement, and propagation of education and learning in every part of the world as far as circumstances will permit." "The principle which has guided the trustees in the fund under their control has been a sense of the value of pioneer work, such as seeking to fill up educational gaps; making some provision for the educational needs of classes of persons not already provided for; aiding new educational movements experimental in character, which give promise of valuable results—movements which, for lack of public support at their initiation, needed financial help to enable them to grow into strength."—(*The Times Educational Supplement*, October 10th, 1910.) Naturally the trustees have been ready to assist efforts to afford working people opportunities for educational improvement. At first the trustees themselves established lectures. Then they aided the University Extension (*q.v.*) courses. Grants have also been made to the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*), and towards the

extension of tutorial classes. The trustees have also aided the work of the National Home Reading Union (*q.v.*), and the Recreative Schools Association.

Girls' Clubs.—There are in the United Kingdom more than 100,000 girls and women engaged in laundry work, over 250,000 in shops, public-houses, etc., and about one and three-quarter millions in factories and workshops. These girls are, in many cases, the bread-winners of their families. They work from ten to fourteen hours a day, at wages from 2s. 6d. to 20s. a week. (The limit does not apply to the high shop-assistants in large shops.) The work is fairly regular, but monotonous and often unskilled. To give to these hard-worked girls rest, recreation, and, above all, friendship and healthy social life, about 400—far too few—clubs exist. Most of them are connected with some religious body, and use parish or chapel premises (*e.g.*, St. Winifred's, Saffron Hill, St. Frideswide's, Poplar). Others have a house of their own (*e.g.*, The Welcome, Jewin Street, E.C.; St. Pancras, Cartwright Gardens; St. Edward's, Argyll Street (R.C.); the West Central Jewish, Dean Street; the Soho Club, Greek Street). But, wherever it be, the club must be a real home: open, if possible, every night, and managed by ladies, devoted, capable, and young, at least, in mind.

These ladies must form the committee: and a second committee, composed of club-members, has often been found useful. An admirable account of how to start a girl's club is *Girls' Clubs*, Tract No. 5 of the National Union of Women Workers (*q.v.*), and the Hon. Maude Stanley has written on *Clubs for Working Girls*. It is best to begin on a small scale, to avoid all disorder. Firm dis-

cipline and absolute regularity are essential in the club lady: and there should be little she does not know about her girls' lives, at home or at work. Club workers may get much help in this matter from the National Organisation of Girls' Clubs (*q.v.*). Some clubs have a paid superintendent: others are managed only by ladies taking different nights: many ask a small weekly payment, others none—or only for class-teaching.

All clubs should have classes for sewing, singing, and musical drill. A host of other subjects may be taught, as cooking (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY), hygiene, nursing, painting, fancy work, basket-making, writing, etc., etc. The London County Council (*q.v.*) and Board of Education (*q.v.*) encourage these classes by teachers and grants of money in suitable cases. Annual competitions and exhibitions are held and prizes offered, usually by one of the useful club federations (*i.e.*, The London Girls' Club and Institute Union, The Social Institutes Union (*q.v.*) (men's clubs as well as girls'), The Federation of Working Girls' Clubs (Y.W.C.A.), and the Girls' Evening Home Association). It is worth attending one of these interesting, and often very difficult, competitions to see the amazing intelligence and capacity for education of even the poorest working girls, whose education—but for clubs—would stop at fourteen. But no classes must be compulsory. Many girls are too tired for them. The ideal club must provide, in winter, bright, warm rooms, comfortable chairs, games, perhaps a gymnasium, probably dancing; in summer, swimming-baths, country outings, Saturday walks—sight-seeing or visiting ladies—above all, a week or fortnight out of London or other large towns.

The Factory Girls' Country Holiday Fund (Sec., Miss Canney, 20, Cross Street, Hatton Garden, E.C.), sent away in 1910, 4,784 girls, chiefly to seaside cottages. Of the total cost of £3,820, £1,418 was contributed by the girls themselves. The Y.W.C.A. (*q.v.*), and G.F.S. (*q.v.*), have many holiday homes; and girls' camps are coming into fashion.

Refreshments can be sold in the club: and there are several girls' dining rooms, open at midday. No strong drink is allowed, and temperance is often actively taught. A Bible class, or religious instruction of some sort, is given at most clubs, and a club which opens on Sunday generally provides for attendance at some place of worship for some of its members. At no time is the club so essential as on Bank Holidays and at Christmas. By late entertainments, free refreshments, etc., it should successfully outbid the public house and shield many girls from temptation. In very poor neighbourhoods girls are often rough and unmanageable before leaving school. This difficulty may be met by a junior club, for girls under fourteen, on another night, or earlier than the senior club.

Some club ladies try to turn factory girls into domestic servants. (The M.A.B.Y.S. (*q.v.*) is very useful in this matter.) The change, though often successful, is not often even desirable. The factory girl, though rough, is "straight" and independent, teachable and affectionate. The club is her—and the lady's—great opportunity. The change wrought through girls' clubs in her dress, manner, and character is almost incredible. Intercourse with gentle women has turned hundreds of noisy girls into well-behaved, self-respecting members of society. Religion has touched and softened hundreds of club members, and

through them, raised the tone of women's industrial life. Club work is far-reaching in its influence, and is immensely well worth doing.

Girls' Clubs, National Organisation of.—Formed in February, 1911, for the purpose of enabling Girls' Clubs (*q.v.*) to act together, when circumstances make such action desirable, the National Organisation of Girls' Clubs has met with considerable success. It consists of two committees, each meeting once a month, one for Social Organisation, formed from the Girls' Club Sectional Committee and the Special Rest Room Committee of the National Union of Woman Workers (*q.v.*); the other an Industrial Advisory Committee which arose out of the old Clubs Industrial Association. All affiliated Clubs are asked to send representatives to these two committees. The Social Organisation Committee considers the education, health and enjoyment of the girls, while the Industrial Advisory Committee takes account of them as wage earners and citizens. Thus the Social Organisation Committee assists in reorganising and developing girls' clubs where such assistance is necessary; it introduces club workers to the posts in which they are most needed; it arranges for the holidays and recreation of club members; it helps the girls to take advantage of the opportunities offered by existing agencies for improving their condition; and it runs a Guild of Health.

The Industrial Advisory Committee conducts investigations as to conditions of work, and is thus enabled to give valuable information to Government Departments, reporting to them specific grievances and infringements of the Factory Acts. It also endeavours in every possible way to stimulate in club members the sense of citizenship and make them realise

their responsibility towards their employers, towards each other, towards themselves, and towards posterity. Lectures and citizen classes are arranged and prove very successful. In this special department of its work the committee has the valued assistance of the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*), and reading parties of informal lectures are often arranged, which are good enough to earn a Government grant.

The Industrial Law Committee (*q.v.*) assists the National Organisation by reporting to the Home Office (*q.v.*) cases of infringement of the Factory Acts and by organising for it in the provinces. Working in co-operation the two Societies have materially benefitted work girls, notably in April, 1911, by getting the Home Office to withdraw the Special Order (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901) under which dress-makers were allowed to work from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. instead of from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m.

A representative of the Labour Exchange Central Office attends the meetings of the Industrial Committee.

The President of the Organisation for 1911 is Mrs. Creighton, the Chairman The Hon. Lily H. Montagu, and the Treasurer Mrs. Stephens. The Secretary of the Social Organisation Committee, is, Mrs. Arnold Glover, and of the Industrial Organisation Committee Miss E. C. Harvey. The Offices are at 118, Great Titchfield Street, W.

Girls' Evening Home Association.

—(See GIRLS' CLUBS.)

Girls' Friendly Society.—(Central Office, 39, Victoria Street, S.W.). (See also GIRLS' CLUBS and METROPOLITAN ASSOCIATION FOR BEFRIENDING YOUNG SERVANTS.) The Society's origin was a little sewing class held by Mrs. Townsend in a Hampshire cottage. It was formed in 1875 "to band

together women and girls as associates and members for mutual help (religious and secular) for sympathy and prayer." The associates are ladies belonging to the Church of England (no such restriction applies to members), and the Society works on diocesan and parochial lines. Members are girls of all classes and include, not only the leisured and educated, but also those engaged in every kind of trade and profession. The society numbers over 300,000 and, having branches all over the world, secures, by a careful system of commendation, protection and friendship for its members, wherever they may go. There is a large number of G.F.S. lodges, and many G.F.S. clubs meet in them or in parochial buildings. By providing good literature, social gatherings, and above all the opportunity of unselfish and religious friendship, it sets before its members a high ideal of life. It helps them also by holiday and convalescent homes, by the care of blind, deaf mute and invalid girls, by provision of safe registries (the chief one being the Central Employment Office, 14, Victoria Street, S.W.), by a careful system of protected emigration (see COLONISATION) and the teaching of thrift (*q.v.*), temperance, and industrial subjects.

The Society publishes five magazines, one for its associates, two for members, one for candidates, and a quarterly in Braille type for blind members. It has a number of libraries in various provincial centres, and a reading union with an annual syllabus of varied subjects, to promote the study of Scripture and general literature.

It aims at being a "standing witness to the possibility of purity of life and conduct of every woman and girl in the Empire," and is essentially a preventive society. It is intended to help girls of

virtuous character to maintain and strengthen that character. The exclusion from the G.F.S. of other girls has been a subject of some dispute, but appears amply justified by results.

Girls too young to become members are enrolled, from the age of eight, as candidates for membership. The number of these in 1909 was 75,352, 4,909 of whom were from workhouses (*q.v.*) and institutions.

Glanders.—(See ANIMALS' DISEASES.)

Glass Trades.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Glove-making.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES EXHIBITION.)

Golf Caddies.—The employment may be classed under three heads. First, when it is open to all, the loafers from the neighbourhood are attracted by an occupation which involves no exertion of mind and a very trifling amount of physical labour for a grown man in ordinary health. For this reason it is undesirable for the man temporarily out of employment. Instead of the heavy task of tramping in search of work he finds an easy and pleasant occupation, and his desire for better things will be weakened by his association with the loafers whom he will see jogging along contentedly on what they pick up so easily. So far as the grown man is concerned, the occupation should be limited to those who, from physical incapacity, caused by old age, sickness or accident, find in it just sufficient for the full use of their powers.

The second class of employment is when the circumstances of the links are such that it is confined to boys of school age during their holidays. The boys are kept out of mischief by an amusing and healthful occupation, and are enabled to earn a welcome addition to the family income. Under a good caddy-master and a club

committee who take an interest in the boys the occupation may be of real benefit. (See also CHILD LABOUR.)

The third class consists of boys who have left school (see BOY LABOUR), but in order that it may not be harmful it is necessary for the club to require that the boys should be in regular attendance at a continuation school (*q.v.*), so as to equip them for an occupation into which they may be passed so soon as they have acquired the necessary knowledge and training.

Grants.—In any review of local government in England and Wales, the government-grants received for local purposes require consideration. In the present case a brief statement of fact is all that can be attempted. The complete return for the year 1907-08 shows that the local authorities received during that year on account of (*a*) grant under the Agricultural Rates Act (*b*) local taxation licence duties and estate duty grant; (*c*) local taxation (customs and excise) duties, known as the "whisky money," (*d*) grants for purposes of education; (*e*) grant for purposes of the Unemployed Workmen Act (see UNEMPLOYMENT), and (*f*) miscellaneous Treasury subventions, sums, amounting together to close upon £21,000,000. Out of the grants received by them, county and county borough councils make large grants to other local authorities. The principal purposes to which the grants above-mentioned were ultimately applied were education, elementary, £11,000,000; higher, £1,865,000; police, £2,594,000; lunatics, £878,000; salaries of Poor Law officers, etc., £1,055,000; salaries of sanitary officials and public vaccinators, £188,000; unemployed, £127,000; relief of rates on agricultural land, £1,326,000. The total amount raised by rates in

1907-08 is shown as nearly £60,000,000. Of rates and grants together, therefore, more than one-fourth came from grants. Of the total receipts of local authorities, rates represented 49·9, and grants 17·3 per cent. Grants (*b*) and (*c*) are, as to part of the licence duties, collected by the General Post Office and paid to the county and county borough councils, and as to the rest of (*b*) and the whole of (*c*), are paid by the Inland Revenue into an account kept by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), and by the latter paid over to councils. A share of (*c*) goes to non-county boroughs with separate police. On receiving grant (*b*) and a subdivision of (*c*), groups of councils have to pool the amount and re-divide it in a prescribed way, before each can tell what it is entitled to have as its own share. The system is a little absurd; and the absurdity is rather enhanced by the consideration, that the licence duties mentioned as being collected by the Post Office are supposed to be "levied by the councils themselves" (!), and that an extra grant of £40,000 a year is paid to them for (though it does not cover the actual amount of) the expenses of enforcing the levy of the duties. Grants (*d*) are mainly Board of Education (*q.v.*) grants paid direct to the authorities. Grant (*e*) is paid by the Local Government Board direct. In all (last return) the Local Government Board paid out £8,447,000, the Board of Education £12,000,000, and other government departments £205,000, on account of grants.

Greenwich Pensioners. — (See VETERANS.)

Guardians, Boards of. — (See also POOR LAW REFORM.) These act for "unions." A union is primarily a combination of parishes for

poor-law relief; and the cost of the relief, and most other charges are defrayed by the guardians out of a common fund, to which all the parishes contribute through the poor-rate. Technically, however, any parish with a separate board of guardians is a union. In some cases what is one union for general purposes, is two or more unions for purposes of out relief. Each board of guardians consists of a chairman, and guardians elected (expressly, or, as to rural parishes, primarily as district councillors) for parishes or wards of parishes for a term of three years. (See RURAL DISTRICT COUNCILS.) The chairman and a vice-chairman may be elected from within or without the body of guardians; and besides these each board may co-opt two other guardians. The principal officers of a board of guardians are a clerk and a treasurer, and (for indoor relief) chaplain, medical officer, master (see WORKHOUSE MASTER), matron (see WORKHOUSE MATRONS), and nurse for the workhouse, and corresponding officers for other establishments, and (for outdoor relief (*q.v.*)) district medical officer (see PARISH DOCTOR) and relieving officer (*q.v.*). The powers of the guardians embrace the relief of indoor and outdoor poor, including the maintenance of workhouses (*q.v.*), infirmaries (*q.v.*), schools, and homes for various classes of paupers; provision of offices and payment of fees for registration of births (*q.v.*), deaths and marriages; vaccination (*q.v.*); valuation of property (see VALUATION); infant life protection (*q.v.*); emigration (see COLONISATION). The annual expenditure of boards of guardians (40th Report of Local Government Board) amounted to £16,000,000, of which £4,500,000 was expended in London unions. The principal items were, indoor

relief (*q.v.*), £7,500,000; outdoor relief, £4,000,000; lunatics (*q.v.*) in asylums, £2,490,000; total expenditure on relief (exclusively), £14,700,00; vaccination, £196,000; valuation, £126,000. These amounts do not include contributions which the guardians collected from overseers (*q.v.*) and paid over to county councils (*q.v.*), but do include contributions raised and paid over to other Poor Law authorities. Guardians' loan debt amounted to £11,500,000, chiefly for erection or extension of workhouses, etc. The principal sources of revenue of the guardians were, rates, £12,325,000 (London alone contributing £3,850,000), and government grants £2,800,000 (see GRANTS).

Guardians, Volunteer Work of.—(See also SOCIETY OF POOR LAW WORKERS AND STATE CHILDREN'S ASSOCIATION.) The duties of a guardian of the poor in any large union make such a demand upon his or her time that it is said that to ask such to do more is to ask what is almost beyond human possibility. Yet no guardian who has really his or her work at heart, can be satisfied with the round of committees, meeting perhaps every day; and the board, once a fortnight. The official is necessary, but the Poor Law deals essentially with humanity; and to bring to bear upon those who come under its care, human sympathy apart from officialism is not only a Christian act of charity but a demand of common fellow-citizenship. So it is that, according to opportunity, a guardian seeks to do more than just his official duty; as in the same way a good servant of the board, whether clerk or doctor, or relieving officer, (*q.v.*), does more than just that which the terms of his appointment secure. The work which may be done by a guardian

other than his official duty, may be outlined under six headings:—

(1) *Sick Children.* In the infirmary (*q.v.*) of every union there are children more or less chronically sick. Some, perhaps, will spend anything from one to ten years in the infirmary; others may, perhaps, never leave the infirmary wards during their lifetime. For these children occupation is difficult, and life dull: also, their lack of education, owing to inability to attend school, constitutes a serious problem; and is a factor which will react very much to their detriment, if ever they become well enough to go out into the world. Occupation, then, and simple education is within the power of anyone to give, and must bring a flood of light into what is otherwise rather a dark existence. In certain unions this is recognised, and a voluntary committee formed of ladies willing to undertake this kind of personal service.

(2) *Children on Out-Relief.* (See also CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW AND WOMEN WITH CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.) In some respects children on out-relief (see OUTDOOR RELIEF) are the most neglected class of children in the whole community. Unlike the children in the homes or schools of the guardians, these have nothing done for them. Often relief is inadequate and the children in consequence ill-nourished and ill-clad. So soon as they may earn their living, they necessarily accept the first employment which offers itself, and this is often employment with no prospects for the future. The problems of these children are difficult and numerous; but if voluntary and friendly visiting is undertaken as a labour of love by the guardians, so that they become the friends of these families and are trusted by them,

their lot in life can be made much happier, and their prospects for the future as bright as those who are fortunate enough to be dealt with by the in-relief system (see INDOOR RELIEF) of the board.

(3) *After-care of Children placed out by the Guardians.* It is obvious that when a child, during perhaps the greater part of his life, has been carefully shielded from the world by the guardians and brought up in a home or school, it is a drastic change, and one fraught with danger, suddenly to send him out to work and to live in lodgings, face to face with all the temptations of the world. To keep in touch with him by visit and letter, to make him feel that he has a friend to whom he may go for advice and help in difficulties, is a work, not of an official, but of a man or woman who, for the sake of the child, will in the best sense of the word, "befriend" him. The same applies to girls sent out to domestic service. In London these duties are carried out by two voluntary associations—the Association for Befriending Boys (*q.v.*), and the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants (*q.v.*).

(4) *The Aged and Invalid in the Workhouse.* In quite a different category from the able-bodied (see ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS) in the workhouse are the aged and chronic invalid men and women. Such cannot employ their time at ordinary work. Their senile condition and disease is often not their own fault, and yet if they must pass day after day, and week after week in the workhouse with nothing to do, how time must drag and how monotonous must their existence become. Light work, such as knitting, crochet, basket-making, and other work with the fingers, many can do if they are taught. The aged blind are another class; often they can

be taught some useful work, and always they can learn to read by means of the Braille system. The Brabazon Employment Society (*q.v.*) seeks to do all this for such as these.

(5) *Young Women and Unmarried Mothers.* What can be more distressing than to see in our workhouses the number of women who come under this class? However much they may repent of their fall, perhaps their first, they may not take their discharge from the workhouse without their child; and to do this is almost impossible, for who will lodge such a mother and child without prospect of employment and means of paying rent? The sympathy and tact of a lady guardian can often bring such women to a sense of shame and desire for amendment: private influence can often then secure a place in service for the mother in new surroundings, and arrangement can be made to board out the child near by. This, however, may not be done officially by the guardians; it can only be done voluntarily. (See also RESCUE WORK.)

(6) *The Casual Ward.* Until effective measures are taken to deal with tramps, there remains for the penniless vagrant only the casual ward (*q.v.*), if he would pass the night under shelter. The lot of the tramp (see VAGRANTS) may be happy to an extent, the life is free, and it may be true that were they given the opportunity to be rid of it many would refuse. Still he remains, friendless, without home, picking up a precarious living as best he may, despised, alternating between prison and casual ward. Can nothing be done for him by the guardian who approaches him as friend? Perhaps very little; but that little is worth doing, if it only be to cheer him and inspire him with hope for a few minutes. The hardest of

voluntary work, certainly the least appreciated, without much constructive result, yet a task of love, visiting the tramp ward, man to man, is not in fact fruitless.

Guild of the Brave Poor Things.—(See also EDUCATION OF CRIPPLES, INVALID CHILDREN'S AID ASSOCIATION, and TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES.) Founder: Mrs. C. W. Kimmins. The headquarters of the Guild are at the Bermondsey University Settlement, and the various branches exist at Bedford, Bradford, Brighton, Bristol, Grimsby, Hammersmith, Hereford, Holloway, Hove, Hull, Kingston, Morley, North Kensington, Paddington, Pentonville, Ramsgate, Reading, Southport, and West London Mission. At head-quarters and at all the branches, regular meetings are held for social intercourse, and the teaching of simple handicrafts.

The greatest educational experiment carried on by the Guild is doubtless that of the residential craft schools at The Heritage, Chislehurst, Sussex, of which a full account is given in the pages of the Guild's report. In addition to these schools, the Guild is the proud possessor of many country holiday homes and centres of guild teaching; notably Bristol, with its beautiful convalescent and holiday home at Churchill; Kingston, with its guild house and trade workshops at Kingston-on-Thames, and its holiday home at Margate; Ramsgate, with its guild house open daily; Hull, with its convalescent and holiday home at Hornsea; Grimsby, with its holiday home at Crawthorpe; North Kensington, with its country holiday home at Ospringe, Kent. All branches contrive to send their members away for country holidays and for special treatment, but many are compelled, as yet, to make temporary arrangements each year.

The Guild of the Brave Poor

Things is an odd name no doubt, but it expresses with considerable accuracy the characteristics of the Guild and its primary aim. The majority of the members are poor, and their lives at the best can hardly be other than lives of struggle and hardship. But more than this, they are weighed down by the heavy burden of bodily infirmity. The disqualifications of ordinary life are the qualifications for membership in this Guild of the Brave Poor Things; the hale and hearty are ineligible save for service. The members are bound together in a fellowship whose motto is *Laetus sorte mea* (Happy in my lot). Though so heavily handicapped, they are pledged to run with courage and confidence the race of life. They have found a motto text for their Guild in the words of the Psalmist: "The lot has fallen unto me in a fair ground, yea I have a goodly heritage," and not in irony or bitter jest, for they have learnt to look upon even their own limited lives as a precious possession and a great trust. They are determined to extract from life the very best that it has to give, and are trying to learn the great truth, that it is the inward life rather than the outward circumstance which chiefly determines the happiness or unhappiness, the dignity or baseness, of a human life. It is not without significance that the medal of the Guild, which all members wear and value, resembles in appearance the Victoria Cross, for it is meant to be an incentive to a life as truly valorous as that of any soldier who by one heroic act has won the coveted V.C.

The work of the Heritage Craft Schools, is distinctly illuminating—it has shown clearly how the efforts of a small group of workers may be guaranteed, uniting in a common interest of love for little children, so to order the education

and well-being of these "little lame dogs" that they may be stronger, happier in their straitened lot, and better than those who have gone before them, and learn and labour truly to get their own living in that state of life into which it shall please God to call them.

For crippled children there is really only one satisfactory solution to the question of how best to help them—two or three years in pure air, with good food, living under healthy surroundings—which may permanently heal some, and will strengthen all. No training of crippled children can be safely undertaken unless under some such arrangements. "All but omnipotent," it has been said, "is early nurture—hereby we have either a doddered dwarf-bush or a high, towering, wide-shadowing tree; either a sickly yellow cabbage or an edible, luxuriant green one."

A thorough training in woodwork and cabinet-making is given in the boys' school. During their third year the boys specialise according to special ability shown.

A complete course in all branches of fine needlework and children's dressmaking is given to the girls, who also receive special teaching according to their capacity. In addition to the thirty cripple scholars, who are thus trained in needlework, etc., at the same fees as the boys—and whose period of training covers the usual three years—suitable non-crippled children are taken for training in housewifery or laundry, at the Girls' Craft School; the fees for these children being half those required for the ordinary scholars, viz., £15 per annum, and an additional £5 to purchase a complete outfit at the end of the training. The period of training for the non-crippled scholars varies from one to two or more years according to the

children's abilities and the age at which they are entered.

Guilds of Help.—These are societies existing in many of the large towns in the provinces. A list of them is given in the *Annual Charities Register and Digest (q.v.)*. They vary both in the principles upon which they act and in their methods of organisation. Many of them work on lines similar to those of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). As an instance of the good work which such guilds can do, the *Handbook for the Use of Helpers*, published by the Manchester City League of Help, which gives all available local information for social workers, may be mentioned.

The most notable characteristics of efficient guilds of help is that whilst on the one hand they deal with individual families by means of personal visits and friendly help given with a view to lasting improvement in the conditions of each family, on the other they associate themselves with State or municipal machinery by working in conjunction with boards of guardians, distress committees (see UNEMPLOYMENT), the administration of old age pensions (see PENSIONS IN OLD AGE), public health committees and the like. The friendly co-operation enables both municipal and voluntary agencies to be more efficient in the work which falls to each.

Guilds of Play.—These guilds exist to organise healthy play amongst poor children. They are to be found in many places and are managed by many workers who have to deal with children. Their work is organised in the same manner as that of Evening Play Centres (*q.v.*) and Children's Happy Evenings Association (*q.v.*).

Gun-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Gypsies.—The origin of gypsies

is uncertain. They form a body of people always distinct from the population of the country in which they lead a nomadic existence. Gypsies first appeared in Europe in large numbers in the fifteenth century, and even in this country quite early in the sixteenth century. Legislation of a most drastic character, in which they were referred to as Egyptians was passed against them. The inevitable tendency in modern times has been for them to become assimilated with the ordinary population so that their numbers are diminishing. They congregate principally in the neighbourhood of London chiefly in Surrey and Berkshire. Complaints are sometimes made that they are a nuisance, but the powers possessed by the local authorities seem to be adequate to deal with the matter if proper use is made of them. The Vagrancy Act of 1824 enables the gypsy to be proceeded against as a rogue and vagabond if he is proved to have no visible means of subsistence and cannot give a good account of himself, or is pretending to tell fortunes. In 1885 all tents, vans, sheds, and similar structures used for human habitation were brought within the provisions of the Housing of the Working Classes so that local authorities can deal with their sanitary condition. The Infectious Diseases Notification Act (see NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES) applies to vans as well as to other dwellings. Various attempts have been made to pass legislation in relation to vandwellers on the lines of the Canal Boats Acts mainly on account of the children (see CANAL BOAT CHILDREN), but without success.

Habitual Criminals.—(See PRISONERS.)

Hairdressing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Half-Time Labour.—(See CHILD LABOUR, II, and FACTORIES, CHILDREN EMPLOYED IN.) Half-Timers are children who are employed in morning or afternoon sets, or on alternate days (see FACTORIES, HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN). A Half-Time Committee, consisting of representatives appointed by various societies and of members of Parliament, has been formed. It has for its object the abolition of half-time, and is promoting in Parliament a Bill which would raise the school-age and otherwise carry into effect the recommendations of the the Inter-Departmental Committee appointed in 1908 by the Board of Education (*q.v.*), which recommended that partial exemption from school and total exemption under the age of thirteen should be abolished.

Handwork.—(See EDUCATIONAL HANDWORK ASSOCIATION.)

Happy Evenings Association.—(See CHILDREN'S HAPPY EVENING ASSOCIATION.)

Hawkers' Licences.—(See LICENCES.)

Health Authorities.—(See MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH, PUBLIC HEALTH ACT and SANITARY AUTHORITIES.)

Health Societies.—(See SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS.)

Health Visitors.—Health visitors are at work in many towns and districts with the object of preventing infant mortality (*q.v.*), of checking the spread of tuberculosis (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION), and other infectious and preventable diseases, and of promoting general hygiene (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS). Their work consists in :—

(a) Visiting and advising the mothers of young children both before and after the birth of their babies ;

(b) Reporting to the proper

authority any insanitary conditions that they may come across in their visits (see **SANITARY AUTHORITIES**);

(c) Giving lectures and addresses on health and similar subjects; and

(d) Spreading the knowledge of the rules of health in any way that may present itself.

In some cases the health visitor is also a school nurse (see "**FOLLOWING UP**" and **MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN**).

The work of health visiting was first undertaken by volunteers or by women appointed and paid by a voluntary association. The success of their work has led to the appointment and payment of health visitors by various local authorities—*e.g.*, town councils, county councils, and boards of guardians. In 1908 the work and title of a health visitor was first legally recognised by the London County Council (General Purposes) Act. Regulations made under this Act by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) provides that a health visitor appointed to a London post must be either—

(a) A properly qualified medical practitioner; or

(b) A trained nurse with certain qualifications; or

(c) Certified under the Midwives (*q.v.*) Act, 1902; or

(d) She must have undergone a regular training for the work; or

(e) Be proved competent to the satisfaction of the Local Government Board.

The sanction of the Local Government Board must also be obtained with regard to the salary paid to a London health visitor. The salaries paid to health visitors differ according to the locality, and to the nature and amount of the work required. In London they are seldom less than £100 a year.

The National Health Society (*q.v.*), the Royal Institute of Public Health (*q.v.*), and the Royal Sanitary Institute (*q.v.*) have organised

special courses of training lectures for health visitors and similar workers on such subjects as municipal hygiene, first aid, infant feeding (see **FEEDING OF INFANTS**), elementary physiology, and anatomy, and so on. The National Health Society gives a diploma after examination in three subjects, which, in conjunction with a short hospital training, is recognised by the Local Government Board as qualifying for appointment as a health visitor. In addition to salaried health visitors, there are in a large number of localities many voluntary health visitors who undertake the same kind of work. It must be remembered that the official as well as the voluntary worker differs from the sanitary inspector (*q.v.*) in having no power of enforcing compliance with her directions. The health visitor can only effect her purpose by the exercise of personal influence and persuasion; but what she does effect is likely to prove permanent, for the improvement which is brought about in this way rests on the co-operation of those among whom she works and not on external compulsion.

Heroes, Dependents of.—(See also **BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.**) The Carnegie Hero Fund makes provision in a comprehensive way for the dependents of all who lose their lives in trying to save the life of another: "the widow and children to be provided for until the widow remarries, and the children until they reach self-supporting age. If there be any other immediate dependents, the trustees in their discretion may provide for them also." The Royal National Lifeboat Institution grants pecuniary compensation to the widows and other dependent relatives of lifeboatmen who lose their lives on service; not less than £100 being allowed for each widow and £25 for each dependent

child. The Society for the Protection of Life from Fire gives money to the parents, widows, and children of such persons whose deaths may have resulted from their endeavours to save life from fire. Provision is also made by local authorities for the dependents of firemen and others who are killed in the execution of their duty.

Higher Education.—(See EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES.)

Higher Elementary Schools.—(See ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.)

Hire-Purchase Agreements.—A hire-purchase agreement is a contract by which the possession of certain goods (for example, furniture and sewing machines) passes from the owner to the hirer, the ownership still remaining with the person letting the goods on hire, with the agreement that, subject to the hirer paying certain instalments at certain stated intervals of time or paying some various sums of money, the ownership shall pass to the hirer upon the completion of the payments. The hirer may, however, put an end to the agreement by returning the goods to the owner, but under such circumstances, unless there is any special agreement to the contrary, the lender is entitled to keep the amount of the instalments paid.

A hire-purchase agreement need not necessarily be in writing in order to be binding on both parties; but it is very inadvisable to make any such agreement otherwise than in writing, for if the contract cannot be completed for a year, no action could be brought in the courts to enforce the agreement. The agreement ought in all cases to be signed by both parties in the presence of witnesses. In practice, hirers are frequently asked to sign printed agreements with the lenders, who are usually shopkeepers. The

intending hirer should read carefully through the agreement, and if he does not understand any provision contained in it, or if he thinks that the agreement or any part of it prejudicial to him or unduly severe, he should refuse to sign it until he has taken legal advice (see POOR MAN'S LAWYER). The agreement usually provides that if default is made in payment of any instalment the owner may resume possession.

The nature of the agreement, as with ordinary contracts, must not be immoral; and the case in which a prostitute was allowed to hire a brougham for the purpose of carrying on her improper business, and where the nature of the business was known to the hirer, was held by the court to be an immoral contract, and the lender was unable to recover the amount of the agreed payment.

Infants (*i.e.*, persons under twenty-one years of age) cannot as a rule enter into a hire-purchase agreement. If, however, an infant should enter into such an agreement for the supply of necessities, in accordance with the infant's position in life, it would be a valid agreement; but the judge is the person to decide whether the goods supplied are necessities, *e.g.*, a house or furniture would have been deemed by the courts of justice in certain instances, to be necessities for an infant. No infant should enter into any such agreement except on competent advice, as it might be prejudicial to his interests.

If execution is issued upon a judgment obtained against a debtor, it is illegal to seize the goods of a stranger, although in the judgment debtor's possession; for only the goods and chattels of the judgment debtor himself may be seized, but the High Court of Justice has decided that where

goods have been let to a debtor for a period of time, the interest in them may be sold for the benefit of the debtor, *e.g.*, if a piano has been let to a judgment debtor for twelve months, and a certain period of that time has still to run, the piano may be re-let to some other person, and the money paid for such re-letting would be handed over to the creditor.

Goods which are on any premises by virtue of a hire-purchase agreement are not exempt from distress (*q.v.*). In many cases the landlord and the person or firm hiring the goods on the hire-purchase system enter into a separate agreement that the landlord shall not distrain upon any goods (the property of the person hiring) which are on the premises by virtue of a hire-purchase agreement.

The right to distrain for rates and taxes is purely statutory, and the goods which may be seized must be those of the person assessed, so the principles which apply to distress for rent do not apply in this case.

It should be specially noted that the hirer may not sell, pawn, or part with the goods and chattels which are in his possession by virtue of a hire-purchase agreement without the consent of the owner, and if he does so he is guilty of a crime and can be severely punished by imprisonment. No one should purchase goods or chattels from another when that other is only in possession of them by virtue of a hire-purchase agreement.

The owner is entitled to recover damages from the auctioneer, pawnbroker or other person to whom the goods have been delivered if he refuses to deliver them up or sells them, even though they may have been received in good faith.

Any person about to enter into a

hire-purchase agreement may be advised and warned not to do so until he has taken competent advice and is fully satisfied as to its meaning.

History Sheets.—(See CASE PAPER SYSTEM.)

Home Arts and Industries Association (Royal Albert Hall, London, S.W.).—This is a society for teaching the working classes handicrafts such as wood-carving, inlaying, metal repoussé, basket-making, leather work, bookbinding, lace-making, embroidery, needlework, spinning, weaving, pottery, etc., and encouraging them to become proficient by means of an annual exhibition. This is done by means of voluntary instruction given at the homes of the teachers, or in rooms provided for the purpose. At the Central Office and studios of the Association training classes are held for the various arts, in which voluntary teachers and others are trained. The Association began with a few classes, and has now a large number at work throughout the United Kingdom. These classes are provided from the central office with designs, models, and leaflets of elementary instruction, and receive such help as they may require in the way of advice as to the best method of working, and information as to where and at what cost they can obtain material and tools. An exhibition is held yearly of the best work done in the classes. At this exhibition awards are given, and the work exhibited may be sold.

The aims of the Association are:—

1. To train the eyes and fingers of its pupils, thereby not only adding to their resources and powers of enjoyment, but increasing their value as workmen and making them more fit to earn a livelihood in whatever occupation they may adopt.

2. To fill up the idle hours of lads

and girls, especially at an age when they have left school, by providing occupation of a kind which will keep them happily employed at home, especially in the evenings.

The excellent moral effect on the pupils is one of the most encouraging features of the work of the Association.

3. To promote pleasant and sympathetic intercourse between the educated and the poor, and to enable the possessors of art knowledge and culture to impart their gifts to those who are without either.

4. To revive the old handicrafts which once flourished in England, and had almost died out, and to encourage the labouring classes to take a pride in making their homes beautiful by their own work.

The Association is greatly in want of more voluntary helpers to carry on and spread its work. It also constantly needs funds to enable it to give increasing help to its classes in the way of designs, models, and literature. The Association is supported in the usual manner by annual subscribers and by occasional donors. It has also a small endowment fund. The subscribers of the Society consists of working members (classholders and others), and of members who are not actual workers, but are interested in the work of the Association and wish to support it. Classholders are admitted at an annual subscription of 10s., members give a guinea and upwards. The 10s. subscription covers only the cost of organisation and preparation and sending out of designs and models to the classes.

Home Nursing.—(See **AMBULANCE WORK**.)

Home Office.—The Home Secretary is the senior of the five principal Secretaries of State. His office was created in 1782, at which date the State business was divided

between a Home and a Foreign Secretary, the former having Irish, Scottish, Colonial, and War Office business, in addition to the functions now belonging to the Home Office. Since then separate departments have been created for each of these classes of business, and, further, much of the newly-created business relating to internal affairs has been assigned to the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) and the Local Government Board. (*q.v.*). The Home Office retains the more ancient internal business, and has also taken on much new work as a result of modern legislation.

The most important functions of the Home Secretary are concerned with criminal jurisdiction and industrial legislation.

Criminal Jurisdiction. The Home Secretary is responsible for advising the Crown in the exercise of the Prerogative of Mercy, in virtue of which sentences imposed by the Criminal Courts can be commuted, remitted, or reduced. Formerly the exercise of this prerogative was the only method of correcting mistaken sentences. Regular legal machinery for reviewing sentences is now provided by the Court of Criminal Appeal; but this right of appeal does not diminish the royal Prerogative of Mercy.

The control and management of prisons and prisoners (*q.v.*) rests with the Home Secretary, who exercises his authority through a body of Prison Commissioners. Several reforms in methods of dealing with convicted persons have recently been introduced, such as the Borstal System (*q.v.*) for young offenders, probationary supervision instead of imprisonment for certain kinds of offenders, and preventive detention for habitual criminals (see **PRISONERS** and **PROBATION OFFICERS**).

The Home Secretary is responsible for the maintenance of order

and has a general control over Police. The Metropolitan Police Force is subject directly to the Home Office; local police forces are inspected by Home Office inspectors, and the Treasury grant in aid of police expenditure is dependent on the Home Secretary's certificate.

The Home Secretary has the duty of administering the Aliens Act (see ALIENS), which (1) provides for the exclusion in certain cases of undesirable aliens, and (2) empowers him to expel aliens convicted of crime or otherwise undesirable from the country.

Industrial Legislation. The Home Secretary administers the most important of the Acts for the protection of workpeople, viz.: the Factory Acts (*q.v.*), Mines Acts, Workmen's Compensation Act (*q.v.*), Truck Acts (*q.v.*), Shop Hours Acts (see SHOPS), and Employment of Children Act (see CHILD LABOUR and WAGE-EARNING CHILDREN COMMITTEE). The first two are enforced directly from the Home Office by means of inspectors appointed by the Home Secretary: for the last two the Home Office is the "central authority" in England, but enforcement is mainly a matter for the local authorities.

The Home Secretary has also a large number of miscellaneous duties, among which the following may be mentioned:—

In addition to the employment of children, the Home Office is concerned with the prevention of cruelty to children (*q.v.*) and the treatment of youthful offenders (see JUVENILE OFFENDERS). Reformatory and industrial schools are inspected by Home Office inspectors (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS).

The Home Secretary has been given certain duties by the Lunacy Acts. Lunatics (*q.v.*) in asylums

are entitled to write to him unopened letters. He exercises a supervision over contracts for lunatic asylums (*q.v.*). He is responsible for criminal lunatics.

Inebriate reformatories (*q.v.*) are subject to Home Office inspection.

The Vivisection Acts are administered by the Home Secretary, who grants licences for experiments on animals.

Naturalisation (*q.v.*) certificates are given by the Home Secretary.

Under the Licensing Acts the Home Secretary has power to prescribe the form of licence, to make certain administrative rules, and to require returns from quarter sessions, etc., etc. (see LICENCES TO SELL INTOXICATING LIQUORS). A volume of Licensing Statistics is issued annually by the Home Office (see PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS).

The Explosives Acts, dealing with the manufacture and storage of explosives and petroleum, are Home Office Acts, and a small staff of Home Office inspectors supervise their administration.

Petitions and addresses to the King pass through the Home Secretary's hands. He is also responsible for much of the business connected with the conferring of honours and with Royal appointments.

Orders for the protection of wild birds are made by the Home Secretary on the application of local authorities.

Many bye-laws (*q.v.*) and regulations made by local authorities require the sanction of the Home Secretary before they receive statutory authority, such as bye-laws for good rule and government under the Municipal Corporations Act; bye-laws relating to commons and open spaces, to advertisements, to employment agencies, traffic regulations, etc., etc. This list is

extended from time to time by new legislation, the general principle being that the Home Secretary is the confirming authority for all bye-laws or regulations that deal with police matters.

Home Office Schools.—(See also DISPOSALS FROM HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS, FARM SCHOOLS and JUVENILE OFFENDERS.) Home Office Schools is the name given to all schools under the inspection of H.M. inspector of certified reformatory and industrial schools. It is only in recent years that the term has come into use as a consequence of the consideration that a stigma frequently attached to a boy or girl known to have been educated in an industrial school or a reformatory, whereas no such stigma attaches to the newer designation. The term also includes day industrial schools (*q.v.*) and short term industrial schools, formerly known as truant schools (*q.v.*), the total number of institutions of all kinds being 212, inclusive of nine special schools (*q.v.*) provided for children of deficient intellect or physique. The number of young persons under detention in residential Home Office schools at the close of 1909 was 26,011, namely, 20,995 boys and 5,016 girls, 3,269 children being in attendance at day industrial schools. Children are committed to Home Office Schools under the Industrial Schools Act of 1866 and also under the provisions of the Children Act of 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER) to industrial schools up to fourteen years of age, to be discharged on or before attaining the age of sixteen; and to reformatories from the age of twelve up to sixteen, to be discharged on or before attaining the age of nineteen. The usual cause of committal to the junior schools is non-attendance at school owing to lack of parental control, whilst acts of petty felony have supplied the

reformatory with the majority of their inmates. The total expenditure on reformatory schools for the year 1909 was £135,085, of which £84,997 was paid by the Treasury, £7,061 by the parents, £35,463 by rates, and £2,388 by subscriptions and legacies. The cost of industrial schools, including the short term schools, was £444,264, of which £183,761 was paid by the Treasury, £18,327 by the parents, and £184,057 by the rates. The distinctive feature of the work within the schools is the combination of industrial, agricultural or nautical training, with the ordinary elementary school education and special attention to physical development. Situations are found for boys when they leave, whether on licence or time-expired, and an important branch of Home Office School work is the after-care taken of those who have been inmates and the efforts made to secure for them a successful career.

Home Office Training Ships.—(See also JUVENILE OFFENDERS.) Training ships form part of the certified reformatory and industrial school system, though at the close of 1909 there were only six certified industrial and one reformatory training ship in existence. The ships are worked on the same lines as the shore schools, and a similar class of boy is committed to them. In recent years there has been a decline in the number of ships owing to the fact that they cannot readily provide training for inmates who require instruction in subjects other than seamanship, for it is not by any means all boys who take to the sea as a calling after training ship education, and it has been found that nautical schools on shore can show equally good results. As a consequence, for instance, the old reformatory ship *Akbar* at Liverpool has recently been abandoned and the *Akbar* Nautical School at Heswall established to take its

place, leaving the *Cornwall*, with accommodation for about 450 lads, as the only reformatory training ship. The four industrial ships in England provide for some 750 boys and the two in Scotland for about 800. Their names are *Clio*, *Mount Edgcombe*, *Wellesley*, *Southampton*, *Empress*, and *Mars*.

Home Teaching Society for the Blind.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Home Work.—(See FACTORY OUTWORKERS, SWEATED INDUSTRIES, and TRADE BOARDS.)

Homes.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Homes and Colonies for the Feeble-minded.—(See also AFTER-CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN, and ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) The earliest scientific experiment made in the training and education of children of limited mental capacity must be credited to France. Itard published in 1801 an account of his efforts to improve the mental state of a boy found running wild in the wood of Aveyron (le sauvage de l'Aveyron). In 1837, Séguin, his pupil, began his educational experiments with the mentally defective, which, later at the Bicêtre Hospital, Paris, initiated the first systematic attempts to improve the condition of the idiot and imbecile. Switzerland, Germany, England, and America followed in establishing institutions for the care and training of this class. Scientific observation then further differentiated the class into idiot, imbecile, and feeble-minded, terms which are chiefly convenient to express a graduated mental capacity, or educability of the types of individual so defined. In England, groups of social workers, interested chiefly in the welfare of girls, opened a home in 1887 for young women found to be "dull in intellect." This

developed into the first home to be founded in England for the feeble-minded, and formed the nucleus of the numerous homes afterwards established, in connection with the National Association for the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*), for the care of this class. In 1872, in America, Dr. Wilbur took the lead in promulgating the doctrine of the necessity of permanent care for this class, as opposed to the more sanguine views of the immediate followers of Séguin, who relied upon his educational methods to produce results which would sufficiently develop the mental powers of the patients under charge, to warrant their being turned out from institutions as capable of managing their own affairs in the ordinary industrial world. Dr. Wilbur was of opinion that the results proved this method of dealing with the feeble-minded to be unsatisfactory, and that permanent care was in many cases absolutely necessary. Custodial homes, therefore, were established in America. In England, homes for training this class are gradually being transformed into homes for permanent care, while the newer homes of the National Association for the Feeble-minded, and those of the Lancashire and Cheshire Society for Permanent Care, are all of this type. Progress however, in this direction has been far slower in England than in America. So far, the asylums which were founded for idiots, but have recently somewhat repudiated this class and confined their attention only to the feeble-minded, still continue to turn out their mental defectives after only a few years of training. This fact must be deplored, as in many cases it cannot fail to prove harmful to the community. Lately an important administrative advance has taken place in the establishment of colonies for the feeble-minded. In

Bavaria a colony was founded in which both the mentally and physically afflicted were received. The system has been adopted in other countries, and in England the National Association for the Feeble-minded has, in addition to its homes, a colony of 171 acres, where the feeble-minded of both sexes are received. The Lancashire and Cheshire Society has also a colony of about 120 acres. Both completely demonstrate the success attendant on this treatment of the mentally defective. To sum up the advantages of the colony over the scattered home system: (1) It provides varied and useful employment for inmates, which allows them to exercise whatever limited capacities they have. (2) It allows a better system of classification. (3) The cost of supervision and superintendence is spread over greater numbers, and the proximity of homes allows a maximum of economy with a minimum of expenditure for management. (4) Farming and outdoor pursuits produce very marked improvement in the mental and physical condition of feeble-minded patients. (5) When properly organised, as a sort of industrial village, the various occupations such as farming, poultry keeping, buttermaking, bootmaking tailoring and sewing, stocking knitting, carpentry, basket-making, etc., all of which can be carried out by mental defectives, render the colony almost a self-contained community, supplying its own needs by its own exertions. This proves at once a source of interest to the inmates and an economy to the ratepayer. Both these colonies have been established by voluntary effort, while the rates pay for the maintenance of many of their inmates. A colony receiving both epileptic and feeble-minded, and a few institutions for the feeble-minded, have been established by boards of guardians in different

parts of England. A list of all homes and colonies may be obtained on application to the Secretary of the National Association for the Feeble-minded, Denison House, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.

Homes for Incurables.—(See INCURABLES.)

Homes for the Dying.—The social worker will, from time to time, come into contact with men and women in the last stage of illness. Very often the sufferers will be found to be living under circumstances which add to the misery and sadness of their condition, and too often make them a peril to those who come into frequent intercourse with them. Some will be found lying helpless among relatives who have neither the time nor the skill to give them the care that they need; others may be found in the dreary isolation of a small garret or back room, without any near relative or friend to tend them. In very many cases the best course of action will be to persuade the sufferer to consent to be taken to the Poor Law infirmary. But cases frequently occur, especially if the sufferer possesses a small pension or has a very strong dislike for the infirmary, when it is better to seek for a Home for the Dying, in which the dying person may receive adequate attention — especially spiritual consolation, opportunities for which are often sadly lacking in infirmaries. These homes vary. Some admit patients free; others ask for small payment. Some admit only one class of patient; others, patients suffering from one particular disease (*e.g.*, consumption). Other homes will accept both dying patients and those who are not dying. In every case the social worker should be careful to obtain a medical opinion on the patient's condition before making application to a home. The best known Homes for the Dying, details of which may be found in

the *Annual Charities' Register and Digest* (*q.v.*), are the Home of Peace for the Dying (Upper Avenue Road, N.W.), the Home of Compassion of Jesus (37, Warrington Crescent, W.), St. Luke's House (14, Pembroke Square, W.), St. Peter's Home (Mortimer Road, Kilburn, N.W.), the Free Home for the Dying (29, North Side, Clapham Common, S.W.), in London; a cottage home at Lancing-on-Sea, a Home of Comfort at Southsea, and the Midway Consumptive Home at Torquay, out of London. The work done in these homes is one of the highest, though most difficult, that can be given to anyone to do.

Homes for Working Boys.—(See BOYS' HOMES.)

Homes of Rest for Discharged Soldiers and Sailors.—(See SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' HELP SOCIETY.)

Hook and Eye Carders.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES EXHIBITION.)

Hop and Fruit Pickers.—(See also PEA PICKERS.) There is a steady decline in the acreage of hops under cultivation. Changes in the conditions of the industry have tended to squeeze out the small owner and to confine it to large growers, who may naturally be expected to be in a better position to make suitable provision for the pickers. The nine counties in which there is still cultivation of hops may be divided into two groups: one in the West Midlands and the other in South-East England. The season begins early in September, and the school holidays are arranged so that children as well as adults may take part in the picking. Although practically the whole population is engaged, "foreign" pickers, that is, imported labour, are also required to supply completely the demand. Hop-picking is regarded by many as a pleasant holiday, with health-giving value. Many go from the East End of London, for example,

into Kent. Gypsies (*q.v.*) gravitate in their vans to the hop-fields, and are good pickers. The vagrant (*q.v.*) is not encouraged by many of the farmers. There is "class feeling" among hop-pickers, as there is in other sections of the community, and his presence is resented by the more cleanly and the local picker. The accommodation for the hop-pickers is of three kinds: ordinary farm buildings, tents, and specially constructed huts. If the local authorities make use of their powers to provide for the sanitary condition either may be made reasonably satisfactory. Sufficient attention to the separation of the sexes is often lacking, and in some instances places of which use is made are unfit for human habitation. In the former respect, tents are often more unsatisfactory than the farm buildings, since there is no means of making a partition. An inspector found on one occasion two married women without their husbands, two single young men, a single girl of eighteen—none of them related to another—and six children in occupation of the same bell-tent. But in Kent and Worcestershire hopper huts are being brought into more general use, and are found serviceable at other times of the year for other kinds of casual labour. The "week end" habit among the friends of the hop-pickers has its inconveniences as it has elsewhere. It leads to overcrowding, since the hop-pickers can only share the space allotted for their own use, and introduces an undesirable element, who have no responsibility to the farmers and are an unmitigated nuisance to the neighbourhood. The fact that the pickers return year after year to the same farm shows that, on the whole, they are not dissatisfied with the arrangements, and there is evidence to suggest that they appreciate arrangements made for their decent

accommodation, though some farmers are inclined to argue that they are indifferent in the matter. The inspector of nuisances (*q.v.*) may render valuable assistance in securing proper conditions of housing, adequate water supply (*q.v.*), and the detection of unsound food sold by the hawkers who visit the fields. The voluntary co-operation of missions organised by the religious denominations has also done much to improve the lot of the pickers. *Mutatis mutandis*, the conditions in regard to the hop-pickers apply to the fruit pickers, but the number of the latter is much smaller.

Hospital Letters.—The papers known as hospital letters are issued by many hospitals to all who subscribe to their maintenance. Each letter entitles a patient to a certain amount of treatment at the hospital from which the letter is issued. The subscriber usually gives the letter to any employee who may need it or sends it to some charitable agency. Some of the larger general hospitals in London do not require letters from those seeking admission. The Metropolitan Hospital Sunday (*q.v.*) and Saturday (*q.v.*) Funds also issue letters to patients, in one case, through clergy and ministers; in the other, through employers. These are of great service to those who have no subscribing friends to give them a letter. The letter system tends to increase the subscription and to reduce the number of applicants. The social worker needs to take care that the patient desiring a letter receives the right kind of letter. It is usual for the letters to have on them dates during which they may be used.

Hospital Nurse Training.—(See also DISTRICT NURSING, MIDWIVES, QUEEN VICTORIA JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES, ROYAL BRITISH NURSES ASSOCIATION, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and VILLAGE

NURSING.) *Qualifications.* A young woman seeking to become a nurse requires, first of all, good health, good powers of endurance, so that she can stand a strain, a calm, restrained temper, with an evenly balanced mind. Patience, gentleness, sympathy and consideration, imagination, perception, and tact are all most essential, and, moreover, she should be actuated by the spirit of self-sacrifice and self-forgetfulness. As memory, accuracy, careful powers of observation, order and method, promptitude, diligence, neatness are all qualities necessary to the making of a good nurse, the applicant should seek to cultivate them in herself.

Age. From twenty-two to twenty-five is the age for an adult or general hospital, but some children's hospitals will admit probationers at twenty years old. In the infirmaries (*q.v.*) attached to the Poor Law establishments a lower age may be accepted, but such a practice should awake suspicion as to the quality of the training given.

Period. Three years is the least in which a training carrying the right to a certificate is given; at many of the large London hospitals the period is four years.

Curriculum. Some large hospitals have a preliminary period of six months to be spent in the home, and during that time the probationer receives elementary teaching in the handling of sick-room appliances, sick-room cookery, bandaging and making of splints, with some elementary theory. In all hospitals the probationer learns elementary anatomy, physiology, sanitary science, hygiene, and some therapeutics. This is commenced in the first year concurrently with work in the wards, the lectures being given by the matron or home-sister, and members of the medical

and surgical staff. In most hospitals informal examinations are held every year, the position in the final (formal) examination determining the probationer's proficiency, and carrying with it the certificate. The clinical work includes duty in medical and surgical wards (male and female), duty in operating theatre, special duty, duty in specialised departments, and in some hospitals the nursing of private cases. The period spent in each section of the training varies in every hospital, and depends upon the number of beds. The number of beds is an important consideration, and it is agreed that no hospital with less than forty beds can give a training; but that is all too small, 100 beds being really the lowest number that offers a complete training.

System of Payment. This varies very much; in those hospitals whose reputation causes them to be much sought after, a charge is made to the probationer of from £20 to £30 for the first year, £10 to £15 for the second, and then in the third year the probationer may receive a small salary of £10 or £15; in some hospitals a fee is charged during the first year, a salary being given for the remainder of the period; but there is so much variety, that each hospital will make its own terms, to be ascertained on inquiry. It is certain that during the period of training some outlay is necessary on the part of the probationer. In the Poor Law infirmaries, probationers are taken without charge, and generally start earning as soon as they are accepted. Uniform is generally provided.

Remarks. The most useful training is given in the country hospitals, where the probationers have more opportunity of doing the actual nursing, than when attached to a hospital with a large medical school. The training given in the large Poor

Law infirmaries is excellent, and most practical. Young women should be careful not to commence their career in any small convalescent or chronic hospital; the time does not count in working for their certificate. In isolation hospitals the time so spent may count, but this point should be clearly ascertained, otherwise it is better to take specialised training after getting the certificate. A good nurse may clear about £50 a year if careful in her habits; it is wiser for the young nurse, if she takes to private nursing, to attach herself to some reputable institution and receive a fixed salary. Besides private nursing, district, colonial, municipal, and infectious nursing is open to her, and the upper posts in the general hospitals; remuneration varies according to requirements and emoluments, but a good livelihood can be made in the nursing profession.

Hospital Saturday Fund.—(See METROPOLITAN HOSPITAL SATURDAY FUND.)

Hospital Sunday Fund.—(See METROPOLITAN HOSPITAL SUNDAY FUND.)

Hospitals.—(See also BRITISH HOSPITALS ASSOCIATION.) It seems unnecessary to enter into the history and general administration of hospitals, further than to mention that full particulars as to the causes of illness with which respectively they deal, conditions of admission of in-patients and out-patients, and other information are set forth in Burdett's *Hospitals and Charities*, published annually. In increasing numbers the hospitals are appointing trained lady almoners or other inquiry officers, from whom the social worker will at once receive co-operation concerning the welfare of any patient. The duties of the lady almoner vary somewhat, according to the circumstances of

the hospital ; but the following list, as set forth by one of the largest London hospitals, shows the possibilities of this development of hospital work in its connection with social work. The duties are : (1) To check the abuse of the out-patient department by patients who are (a) in a position to pay for treatment ; (b) too poor to benefit by any assistance other than that obtainable through the Poor Law. (2) To ensure, as far as possible, that all out-patients to whom treatment is granted shall benefit to the full by that treatment. With this object, neither time nor labour are spared to secure, with the assistance of outside charitable agencies if necessary, the full co-operation of the patient in carrying out the treatment prescribed by the hospital. (3) To encourage thrift (*q.v.*) and urge the necessity for providing against sickness, old age, and death by joining permanent clubs and friendly societies (*q.v.*) registered under Act of Parliament. (4) To act as a connecting link between the out-patients' department as a consulting centre. One important result of the almoner's work, as of all systematic charitable work of the kind, is that a complete record is kept of the cases which require attention. It has shown that there is much to be done outside the walls of the hospital and in directions where the lady almoner may expect assistance from the social worker. A poor woman, for example, is given a bottle of medicine and told by the physician that she must have rest and nourishment. The former she takes gladly ; the latter she regards as unattainable. The provision of a substitute to undertake temporarily her domestic duties has to be arranged, if any permanent benefit is to result from the hospital treatment. On the other hand, a desire to render assistance

may be directed into an entirely wrong channel unless given in consultation with the lady almoner. " It seems to have developed into a custom with social workers," writes one in her report, " to think that if a child is attending the hospital it must of necessity need extra nourishment, and the mothers are told to ask about it when next at the hospital." As a matter of fact, not infrequently the child often needs less rather than more food, and that of a suitable nature. Or again, with the best intentions, the worker sends the child away to a convalescent home (*q.v.*) which is quite useless, unless strong measures are taken to improve the home conditions on its return. The sending away of adults for convalescent treatment is another matter in which there is room for co-operation between the lady almoner and the social worker. If the wage earner is being sent away, it may be necessary to supplement the family income ; or if the mother is to be free to leave home, someone may be required to take her place for the time.

The work of the lady almoner results in the detection of a good deal of abuse by those who have the means to pay for their treatment, especially in the casualty department. On the other hand, the casual (see VAGRANTS) is attracted to the warmth and comfort of the hospital, or wants an order for the infirmary, so as to avoid the casual ward (*q.v.*). Again, the hospital is not intended for chronic cases, such as varicose veins, which should be treated by the Poor Law dispensaries.

Houses of Correction. — (See PRISONERS.)

Housewifery. — (See DOMESTIC ECONOMY.)

Housing Acts. — (See also ARTISANS' DWELLINGS, BLOCK DWELLINGS, BUILDING BYE-LAWS,

CLOSING ORDERS, COPARTNERSHIP HOUSING, GARDEN CITIES, GARDEN VILLAGES AND SUBURBS, MUNICIPAL DWELLINGS, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, OVERCROWDING and SMALL SLUMS.) The Housing Acts began with Lord Shaftesbury's two Acts (1851), Torrens' Acts (1866 and 1868), and Cross's Acts (1875, 1879, and 1882) and by various local improvement Acts. Owing to the expensive working of these measures, it became necessary to consolidate and amend them by the Housing Act, 1890, which has been modified by the Acts of 1900, 1903, and the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909. The administration of housing powers has been entrusted to borough councils (*q.v.*), urban district councils (*q.v.*), and rural district councils (*q.v.*); but the London County Council (*q.v.*) has special powers of building and town planning (*q.v.*), while all county councils have default powers and concurrent powers in certain respects. The measures under which local authorities work are:—

(1) The Public Health Act, 1875 (sanitary clauses), together with the amending or corresponding measures, the Public Health Acts (Amendment) Acts, 1890 and 1907, the Public Health (London) Act, 1891; and bye-laws made under the provisions of the same;

(2) The Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, with amending Acts of 1893, 1894, 1896, 1900, 1903, and 1909;

(3) The Small Dwellings Acquisition Act, 1899;

(4) The Municipal Corporations Act, 1882 (Sec. 111), and the Working Classes Dwellings Act, 1890;

(5) The Standing Orders of Parliament for Local Improvement and Public Companies' Bills.

So far as the provision of houses is concerned, the most important of

these are the Housing of the Working Classes Acts, 1890-1903, and the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909.

The principal Act (1890) is divided into seven parts, and the following summary of housing powers has been arranged under the three most important of these divisions, viz.: Part I, the clearance of large slum areas; Part II, the clearance of small slum areas and the closing and demolition of unhealthy houses or obstructive buildings; and Part III, which deals with the provision of new dwellings by or through the action of local authorities.

The amending Act of 1900 modified Part III of the principal Act by empowering councils to buy land outside their districts (Sec. 1) and to lease any land bought within or outside their districts to persons willing to build cottages (Sec. 5), as well as for the building of cottages by the local authority. It also provided for the raising of money for Part III schemes by metropolitan boroughs (Sec. 3), and for simplifying accounts kept under the various parts of the principal Act (Sec. 4). Other provisions were also made, but have since been repealed.

The Act of 1903 empowers the local authority to erect shops and other necessary buildings and to provide recreation grounds in connection with Part III schemes (Sec. 11). It removed the limitation on borrowing (Sec. 1), which was previously confined to two years' rateable value for all purposes, including housing; extended the period for repayment of housing loans (Sec. 1); and slightly simplified the procedure for closing unhealthy dwellings and clearing unhealthy areas (Sec. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10). But these last-named provisions have been to a great extent repealed by the Act of 1909. Finally, it

imposed more stringent conditions as to rehousing (see MUNICIPAL HOUSING) in connection with the demolition of workmen's dwellings under Railway Bills and Local Improvement Acts (Sec. 3).

The Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, modifies a number of provisions in previous Acts as respects the keeping of houses in repair (Secs. 14 and 15), the closing and demolition of unhealthy dwellings (Secs. 17 and 18), the clearance of slum areas (Secs. 23 to 29), the appointment of county medical officers of health (*q.v.*) (Secs. 67 and 68), and the provision of new dwellings for the working classes. It requires county councils (*q.v.*) to establish Public Health and Housing Committees (Sec. 71), and it gives them a number of default powers as regards district councils and the principal Act (Secs. 10 and 12), while also giving concurrent powers, under Part III, in rural districts (Sec. 13).

Part III of the Act of 1890 takes effect everywhere without being adopted (Sec. 1), and a new procedure for compulsory land purchase is enacted, substantially the same as for small holdings (*q.v.*) (Secs. 2, 60, and Schedule I).

Powers of complaint on a large and systematic plan are given in respect of the non-exercise of housing duties by local authorities (Sec. 10). An appeal may be made to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) by the county council (*q.v.*), parish council (*q.v.*), parish meeting (*q.v.*), or any four inhabitant householders if the local authority within their area fails to deal with insanitary houses or build new ones when required. In rural districts where necessary cottages are not built a county council may hold an inquiry and take over the powers of the district council on receipt of a complaint from a parish council, a

parish meeting, or any four inhabitant householders (Sec. 12).

The power of entry for purposes of inspection is extended to any person authorised in writing by the local authority or the Local Government Board, on giving twenty-four hours' notice to the occupier and owner (Sec. 36). The Act further empowers the Local Government Board to prescribe a form of record for the results of inspections carried out by local authorities, and enables the Board to enforce by mandamus the performance of housing duties where the local authority is in default (Secs. 17 (1), 10 (6), 11 (2)).

Back to back houses are forbidden (Sec. 43); the powers of making bye-laws for houses let in lodgings are extended (Sec. 16); the procedure for clearing slum areas under Parts I and II of the principal Act is simplified and made more uniform (Secs. 23 to 29); building bye-laws may be revoked by the Local Government Board where they unreasonably hinder building of workmen's dwellings (Sec. 44); local authorities are required to report on housing conditions in their area if required by the Local Government Board (Sec. 37); and houses which are unfit for habitation may be closed and demolished by order of the local authority without going to the Courts of law, subject to an appeal to the Local Government Board (Secs. 17 and 18).

Money for housing purposes may be borrowed at the minimum rate of interest from the Public Works Loan Commissioners for a period up to eighty years, with the approval of the Local Government Board (Sec. 3), and may be lent to "societies of public utility" to the extent of two-thirds of the security by the Public Works Loan Commissioners direct (Sec. 4), or by county councils (Sec. 72). The expenses of rural district councils (*q.v.*) under Part

III will in future be defrayed as general expenses unless the Local Government Board otherwise determine (Sec. 31).

Joint boards for housing purposes (Sec. 38) and town planning purposes (Sec. 55 (3)) may be formed by the Local Government Board.

Howard Association.—(See also JUVENILE OFFENDERS and PRISONERS.) The Association was founded in 1866 to improve the methods of penal administration and to aid the prevention of crime. Mr. William Tallack was its first Secretary. The Association has successfully advocated the disuse in prisons of degrading punishments, such as "shot drill," "the treadmill," and "the crouch," and of cellular isolation. It has also taken part in the movement for prison treatment to become reformatory rather than punitive. The following reforms are the present object of its attention: (1) Time allowance for payment of fines; (2) young offenders to be allowed to pay fines by easy instalments; (3) a thorough application of the Probation Act, with the appointment of paid probation officers (*q.v.*) responsible to the State and removable by the State; (4) probation officers to have power to collect fines; (5) restitution for money or goods stolen as allowed by the Probation Act, to be further developed and enforced; (6) the abolition of repeated short sentences, the folly and futility of which have been so long demonstrated, and the results of which have been so disastrous; (7) manual or technical training for young prisoners who suffer from physical defects; (8) a more thorough classification of prisoners, and to ensure this the establishment of specialised prisons suitable to the age, physical, and mental condition of the prisoner; and (9) the adoption of the indeterminate sentence

with the establishment of parole boards and the appointment of parole officers.

Humidity of Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Husband and Wife.—1. *The Agreement to Marry.* The agreement to marry is a contract for breach of which an action for damages will lie. A promise need not be in writing, but the oral evidence of the plaintiff must be corroborated "by some other material evidence in support of such promise" (Evidence Further Amendment Act, 1869, s. 2). An action will lie by or against either the man or the woman. An infant (*i.e.*, a person under twenty-one) may sue for breach of promise of marriage, but he is not liable to be sued, even after he comes of age, unless he makes a fresh promise to marry. Merely ratifying an old promise on attaining majority is not sufficient (Infants' Relief Act, 1874, s. 2).

2. *Necessary Conditions to a Valid Marriage.* The parties must be of proper age, *i.e.*, fourteen years in the case of boys and twelve in the case of girls. If, however, the parents or guardians object to such a marriage when either of the contracting parties is under twenty-one years old, the marriage is invalid. But it is not necessary to prove such consent in order to make the marriage valid (Marriage and Registration Acts Amendment Act, 1856, s. 17).

It is further necessary that the parties to the marriage should understand the nature of the ceremony and should consent thereto, *e.g.*, if one party pretends to be another person and the personation results in the second party marrying the wrong person, the marriage is not valid. Similarly a lunatic cannot contract a valid marriage.

If either party to a marriage is already married to some other living

person, that party commits bigamy, and the second marriage is of no effect.

If the parties to a marriage are within the prohibited degrees of affinity and consanguinity, the marriage is invalid. The table of prohibited degrees which is printed in the Prayer Book is part of the law of the land, and is binding on all persons domiciled in England, irrespective of creed (Marriage Act, 1835). But this has been modified by the Deceased Wife's Sister Marriage Act, 1907, which legalised marriage with a deceased wife's sister "as a civil contract." This Act does not render valid marriage with a living but divorced wife's sister.

A valid marriage must be solemnised either (1) according to the rites of the Church of England, by licence (special or ordinary), or after publication of banns, or upon production of a certificate by the superintendent registrar of the district; or (2) before a registrar; or (3) in the presence of a registrar in registered buildings, according to the rites of the Roman Catholic Church or of Protestant denominations; or (4) according to the rites of the Jewish Faith or of the Quakers, both of which are governed by special statutes.

It may be noted that no religious ceremony may take place at a registrar's office. Marriages may be solemnised in Nonconformist places of worship without the presence of the registrar upon compliance with the Marriage Act, 1898.

Marriage by banns is the most usual method, and is, therefore, given more detailed description here. Banns is a Saxon word, and signifies "publication." The statute now in force is the Solemnisation of Marriages Amendment Act, 1823, s. 2, of which provides that banns shall be published in an audible manner in the parish church or in

some public chapel where banns may be lawfully published, in the parish or chapelry in which the parties live; they must be published in the form prescribed by the Rubric upon three Sundays preceding the marriage. When the parties live in different parishes, the banns are to be proclaimed in each. No clergyman is bound to publish banns unless he has seven days' notice. Officers, seamen, and marines who are on board His Majesty's ships at sea may have their banns published thereon as if the ship were a parish church. Banns are only in force three months - from the last publication.

When the banns are objected to, the incumbent should inquire into the validity of the objection, and if in doubt as to what to do, he should appeal to the bishop of the diocese. A declaration by the parent or guardian of a minor that he or she disapproves of the marriage renders that publication of the banns of no effect.

The question of marriages with foreigners is a large and difficult one. The laws of different countries vary greatly, and it is at present impossible to lay down a fixed rule in regard to them. In view of the fact that girls often marry foreigners in the belief that the law of the land, where the marriage is celebrated, is binding on both parties, it is felt desirable to give this warning and to advise that in all such cases advice should be obtained by reference to the consul of the foreigner, the ecclesiastical legal authorities, or by seeking the advice of a poor man's lawyer (*q.v.*).

3. *Effect of Marriage on Property.*

(a) *On Husband's Property.* The wife has no control over the property of her husband unless he dies intestate. In that event the Court will generally grant her the right to administer his estate. She may not

do this without the sanction of the Court.

By the Statute of Distributions, which applies to "personal estate," *i.e.*, property which is not land or interest therein, a widow without children takes one-half of the property and a widow with children one-third. "Children" for this purpose includes "children's children," so that the child of a dead child will take his father's place for the purposes of this statute.

When there is *total* intestacy and the whole property is less than £500, the widow without issue takes all. If the whole property is more than £500, the widow without issue takes £500. These rules do not affect her rights under the Statute of Distributions (Intestates' Estate Act, 1890).

(b) On Wife's Property. The rights of a husband over the property of his *living* wife are controlled by the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, which came into operation on January 1st, 1883. This Act applies to all marriages contracted since that date, and to all property acquired by a wife since that date, even if the marriage took place before 1883. The rights of a husband to the property of his wife is thereby abolished, and the fact of marriage no longer effects any alteration in a woman's right to, or power over, her property.

A wife may make a will disposing of her own property in the same way as a single woman, and on intestacy the widower must take out administration of his wife's estate. Unless there is good reason for another course, the court will always grant administration to the husband.

(c) Effect of Marriage on Wills. Marriage now revokes the wills of both bride and bridegroom (Wills Act, 1837, s. 18).

(d) Gifts between Husband and Wife. The combined effect of the

Conveyancing Act, 1881, s. 50, and the Married Woman's Property Act, 1882, s. 1 (1), is that either party may now make a gift of any property to which he or she is presently entitled to the other. It must be remembered that the latter Act does not apply to property which passed between them before 1883. All gifts by a husband to his wife are presumably her own absolute property.

4. *Effect of Marriage on Liability.*

(a) Maintenance. A husband must maintain his wife so long as the relation of husband and wife lasts. She may lose her right to maintenance by unfaithfulness or by leaving him without his consent. He must also maintain their children, and if he wilfully refuses or neglects to maintain his wife or children, he is liable to imprisonment under the Vagrancy Act, 1824, ss. 3, 4. Further, if they become chargeable to the parish, the Guardians may recover the cost of any relief they have received (Poor Law Amendment Act, 1834, s. 56). And under the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1868, a husband may be ordered at petty sessions to pay such sums, weekly or otherwise, as the justices may think proper for the maintenance of the wife and children.

The liability of a wife to maintain her husband is limited to the case when she has property of her own. She is not bound to work in order to maintain him (Married Women's Property Act, 1882, s. 20). Section 21 of that Act imposes a like liability to maintain her children, although this does not in any way affect the corresponding liability of the husband.

(b) Co-habitation. Marriage creates the duty of a wife to consort with her husband and the right of the husband to consort with his wife. If a third party entices her away, the husband, who is thus

deprived of her society, may bring an action for damages against him.

(c) *Wife's Debts and Liabilities Contracted before Marriage.* The law as to ante-nuptial liabilities is contained in Sections 13-15 of the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, except as to rights and liabilities acquired or incurred between 1870 and 1883, which are governed by the Acts of 1870 and 1874, to which reference should be made in cases where marriages were contracted between August 9, 1870, July 30, 1874, and January 1, 1883.

The Act of 1882 provides that marriage shall not affect the liability of a woman, so far as her separate property is concerned, for all debts contracted, contracts entered into, or wrongs committed by her before her marriage. She may be sued for damages in respect of these liabilities, and any damages and costs awarded against her are payable out of her separate property, but not otherwise (s. 13).

But a husband is liable for the ante-nuptial debts, liabilities, and wrongs of his wife to the extent of any property he may have acquired from or through his wife, and to that extent he is liable in damages and costs. But from such property he is entitled to deduct any sums already paid by him or recovered from him "in any proceeding at law" in respect of which his wife was liable before her marriage (s. 14).

The Act does not impose on the wife any corresponding liability for her husband's ante-nuptial liabilities.

(d) *Wife's Contracts after Marriage.* By the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, s. 1, a married woman may enter into contracts and render herself liable thereon, in the same way as a single woman, in respect of and to the extent of her separate property. This Act

has been modified by the Act of 1893, which provides that every contract now made by a married woman, otherwise than as agent, binds her separate estate, although that separate estate may have been acquired after she entered into the contract. The effect of this provision is that her intention to bind her separate estate is presumed and cannot be negatived. As to the words "otherwise than as agent," it has been judicially decided that when a married woman, living with her husband in the ordinary way, orders household necessities or articles of clothing suitable to the position which her husband is pleased to maintain, the *prima facie* presumption is that she contracts as agent for her husband.

(e) *Wife's Wrongs Committed after Marriage.* By the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, s. 1 (2), a married woman is liable for wrongs, *e.g.*, negligence, committed by her just in the same way as a single woman, and it is not necessary to prove the possession by her of separate property in order to succeed in an action against her.

(f) *Trading by Married Women.* Married women who carry on a trade separately from their husbands are, in respect of their separate property, subject to the bankruptcy laws.

5. *Criminal Law and the Relation of Husband and Wife.* (1) A wife cannot be convicted of being an "accessory after the fact" to her husband's felony, if she assists and harbours him. But a husband may be convicted in the converse case.

(2) A husband and wife cannot be convicted for conspiracy, because for this purpose they are regarded as one person.

(3) A husband or wife who goes through the form of marriage with a third party during the lifetime of the spouse is guilty of bigamy

(Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 57). The second wife is a competent witness as soon as the first marriage is proved. The first wife is not competent as a witness for the prosecution, but is competent as a witness for the defence. When absence for seven years on the part of the spouse of the person indicted is proved, it is for the prosecution to show that the prisoner knew his wife to be alive at some time during the seven years, and if they fail in doing so, the prisoner must be acquitted. And even if the seven years have not elapsed, *bona fide* belief of death is a good defence.

(4) A husband or a wife may commit an assault in defence of the other.

(5) As a general rule, it may be laid down that a wife who commits a crime in the presence of her husband is presumed to be acting under his immediate coercion. But this rule has numerous exceptions, and is no excuse, *e.g.*, in murder. It has been applied to burglary, larceny, forgery, and uttering base coin.

(6) The law relating to evidence by husband and wife in criminal cases is governed by the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898. Husband or wife are competent witnesses for the defence upon the application of the prisoner. They are not compellable to disclose any communication between them during marriage. But they may be called as witnesses for prosecution or defence without the consent of the prisoner in those cases set out in the schedule to the Act.

6. *Separation.* The law of judicial separation under the Summary Jurisdiction (Married Women) Act, 1895, affords to a wife a convenient means of obtaining a separation order from a court of summary jurisdiction. This procedure is not open to a husband. The result of a separation obtained in this way is the same as a decree of judicial

separation from the High Court. It is to be noted that judicial separation does not give the parties the power to marry again during their joint lives.

The grounds for separation are : (1) Conviction of the husband summarily of an " aggravated assault " upon the wife ; (2) conviction of the husband on indictment of an " assault " for which he is sentenced to more than two months' imprisonment, or to pay a fine of more than £5 ; (3) desertion ; (4) persistent cruelty to her ; (5) wilful neglect to provide reasonable maintenance for her or her *infant* children, whom he is legally liable to maintain, provided, in cases (4) and (5) that such cruelty or neglect has caused her to live apart from him (see ASSOCIATED SOCIETIES FOR THE PROTECTION OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN).

A sixth ground was added, which is open to a man as well as a woman, by the Licensing Act, 1902, s. 5 (1), which entitles the party whose spouse is a habitual drunkard to a separation order.

When any of these grounds exist, the aggrieved party may apply to a metropolitan police magistrate, stipendiary magistrate, or county or borough justices, as the case may be, for a summons, and on the hearing of the case the court may make any or all of the following orders :—

(a) That the applicant is no longer bound to cohabit with the defendant.

(b) Legal custody of any children of the marriage.

(c) Payment by the defendant to the applicant or to an officer of the court of a reasonable sum for maintenance which shall not exceed £2 per week.

(d) Payment of costs.

Uncondoned adultery is a sufficient defence to any summons under the Act of 1895.

In some cases, when legal proceedings are not taken, the parties agree to separate. These agreements provide for the custody of the children, the maintenance of the wife, and forbearance to compel cohabitation. The occasion of the agreement must be a separation already existing or immediately arising, for an agreement for future separation is void in law as against public policy. Separation agreements are automatically annulled on cohabitation being resumed.

Hygiene Classes.—(See ST. JOHN'S AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION.)

Hygiene in Elementary Schools.—(See also PERSONAL HEALTH and PHYSICAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS.) Under the heading of Hygiene and Temperance the Board of Education (*q.v.*) has drawn up a scheme for imparting the rules of health to school-children. It is recognised that instruction in this subject should naturally be given in the home, the function of the school being to supply the scholars, at a suitable age, with the reason for the rules which home training has taught them to follow. But in many districts the standard of knowledge and practice in this respect is so low among the parents of the scholars, that the school is forced to assume the neglected duty of the home. The outline scheme of instruction covers the following topics:—

1. *The Home.* Cleaning of rooms and fittings. Clothing; Air (windows, doors, etc.). Warmth (fires, gas, overcrowding); Light (lamps, gas, etc.); Water (washing, drinking); Money (earnings, thrift).

2. *The Person.* Cleanliness; Erect carriage; Personal habits; Breathing (perspiration, change of clothing, etc.); Signs of good health; Restraint and Self-respect.

3. *Eating and Drinking.* Meat, milk, cheese; vegetables; bread; puddings; Errors of feeding; Uses

of food; Alcohol, effects and dangers.

4. *Illness.* Minor ills; home treatment; accidents; fits; infectious illness; when to send for a doctor.

Up to 1907 Hygiene had been studied by a certain number of students at particular colleges, but there was no systematic provision for instruction in the subject. In 1907 the Board issued a new syllabus of Hygiene, which was required to be included in the curriculum of every training college, except in the case of students taking degree courses, who have not sufficient time available.

Idiots.—(See ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Illegitimate Children.—(See BASTARDY, INFANT LIFE PROTECTION and INFANT MORTALITY.)

Illicit Commissions.—(See also COMMERCIAL MORALITY.) These may be defined as the bribery of agents without the knowledge of their employers, which may induce them to betray their trust. In 1898 the London Chamber of Commerce declared that "secret commissions in various forms are prevalent in almost all trades and professions to a great extent, and that in some trades the practice has increased, and is increasing"; and also that "the practice is producing great evil alike to the morals of the commercial community, and to the profits of honest traders." Though bribery and corruption were illegal, and punishable in the civil courts, it was further necessary that the payment, the receipt, the offering and the solicitation of any corrupt payment should be made a criminal offence. This was done by the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1907. In the following year the "Secret Commissions and Bribery Prevention League." 3, Oxford

Court, Canon Street, E.C., which had been in operation for some years previously under the presidency of Sir Edward Fry, obtained a charter of incorporation. Its main work is to spread knowledge of the Act, advise complainants, investigate doubtful cases, and initiate legal proceedings against offenders. Several important trade associations are affiliated with the League, and are co-operating in the effort to suppress this form of bribery and corruption.

Imbeciles.—(See ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Immigration.—(See also NATURALISATION and UNDESIRABLE IMMIGRANTS.) The statutory regulation of immigration into Great Britain applies only to aliens (*q.v.*). British subjects may come and go as they please. Many having become prosperous in other parts of the world return to end their days in the home country. Others having failed to meet with the success for which they hoped are obliged to come back again in order to be among those who can render them assistance. The constant tide of emigration (see COLONISATION) is counter-balanced, therefore, by a movement in the opposite direction. In no country of Europe, except Ireland, is the net decrease sufficiently large to be greater than the increase of population. The exact statistics as to the passenger movement between the United Kingdom and places abroad are published annually by the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) in a statement presented to Parliament. An uncertain factor in the figures is the number of persons who are *en route* from one country to another. Immigration, however, presents a problem of imperial and even international importance, and cannot, therefore, receive adequate attention in these pages.

In forma pauperis.—(See POOR MAN'S LAWYERS.)

Incorporated National Lending Library for the Blind.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Incorporated Soldiers and Sailors Help Society.—(See SOLDIERS AND SAILORS HELP SOCIETY.)

Incurables.—Besides the Homes for the Dying (*q.v.*) there are many homes and hospitals and some pension funds for those who, through prolonged illness are unable to earn their living. Wherever it is possible, it is best for such persons to be cared for by near relatives and friends, and old employers. The social worker may often be the means of bringing these together and organising their co-operation in the support of the incurable. But where this is not possible, either a pension must be obtained for the sick person or he must be admitted into a home for incurables. These homes, in the majority of cases, exclude members of the "pauper class," the mentally afflicted, and the blind, and aim at admitting members of the middle classes whose affliction has rendered them necessitous. Unfortunately many of these homes are voting charities (see CHARITY VOTING REFORM ASSOCIATION), owing to the difficulty of obtaining regular charitable support. The result of this is that whilst many inmates of Homes for Incurables might well be supported by friends and relatives well able to do so, many incurables having no friend to press their claims, linger on in poverty and distress in the hidden squalor of garrets and back rooms. A list of the Homes and Hospitals for Incurables may be found in the *Annual Charities Register and Digest* (*q.v.*).

Indoor Relief.—(See also RECOVERY OF COST OF RELIEF.) For

cases that need effective supervision and control the guardians (*q.v.*) provide workhouses, infirmaries, and schools. In the schools the children are properly fed, clothed, and educated (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW); in infirmaries (*q.v.*) the sick are nursed, tended and treated with skill, being made to carry out the doctor's instructions; in the workhouses (*q.v.*) they are at least enabled to lead sober, clean and orderly lives. In the latter institution there should be efficient classification (*q.v.*), and the officers in charge, who are responsible to the guardians for the good conduct of the institutions, should be carefully selected.

The cost, however, of indoor relief has been increasing at an almost alarming rate, and as early as 1870 Lord Goschen called attention to the high expenditure. The cost, taking the country as a whole, has risen from £7 17s. per head in 1848-9 to £27 14s. 10d. in 1909-10. The Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (*q.v.*) contributes a proportion of the cost of indoor relief thereby reducing the amount payable from the local rates.

The improved condition of the various institutions accounts very largely for the continued increase in the number of those who are maintained. Guardians are more readily adopting children under the Acts of 1889 and 1899, and caring for them in the school or homes, and more active steps also are being taken by the N.S.P.C.C. (*q.v.*) and the Sanitary Authorities (*q.v.*) to prevent overcrowding (*q.v.*), whilst the provisions of the Children Act (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER) are more rigidly enforced. There is, however, an "intelligible reluctance on the part of some boards to incur the cost of placing the children of paupers in apparently better circumstances than many

ratepayers are able to afford for their own children."

Nevertheless it is generally admitted that children in receipt of indoor relief are better nourished, freer from skin defects, better attended as regards their teeth, cleaner and better dressed than the average elementary school child, while the opportunity of effective industrial training followed by apprenticeship, or good positions in service gives them far greater chances of becoming self-supporting and independent citizens than if they had been maintained in their homes - (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW). Relief in the workhouse is referred to elsewhere but it is generally admitted that an immense amount of misery and suffering is alleviated in the workhouse which could not be dealt with except by institutional care and supervision, and very sincere gratitude is often expressed by the inmates for the help and comfort afforded to them (see GUARDIANS, VOLUNTEER WORK OF).

The modified workhouse test order gives powers to guardians to grant outdoor relief (*q.v.*) to the wives and children of men who are willing to enter the house. The advantage of this is that it tests the man's ability and willingness to work more thoroughly than an outdoor labour test, and also ensures that the full advantage of outdoor relief is obtained by the family at home without any consequent "breaking up of the home."

The improvement in the administration of the infirmaries and sick wards of the workhouse has been steady and continuous, and many of the newer institutions have nursing and training schools attached, and are equal in efficiency to the best equipped hospitals. Great difficulties, however, are still apparent, and it has been found

advisable by some boards to deal with special cases by special means. For instance, cases of tuberculosis and cancer, where home treatment is impracticable, are only dealt with on condition that the patient is willing to go at the cost of the rates to some suitable institution for treatment, and all single pregnant women applying for relief, especially first cases, are sent to rescue or maternity homes (see RESCUE WORK).

Industrial Copartnership.—(See PROFIT SHARING AND LABOUR COPARTNERSHIP.)

Industrial Diseases.—(See also DANGEROUS TRADES.) The principal diseases from which workers suffer in direct consequence of the nature of their work are anthrax, arsenic poisoning, benzine derivatives poisoning, carbonic oxide poisoning, lead poisoning (*q.v.*), mercury poisoning, nitrous fumes poisoning, phosphorus poisoning, phthisis, sulphuretted hydrogen poisoning, and ulceration. Owing to the prohibition of the use of yellow phosphorus in the manufacture of matches phosphorus poisoning is infrequent. Laundry workers suffered considerably from rheumatics till the passing of the Laundry Act regulated the temperature and humidity of atmosphere of the work place (see LAUNDRIES). "Bronzing," a

process in use in printing works, is dangerous owing to the inhalation of dust (see WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION).

Industrial Insurance.—(See THRIFT.)

Industrial Law Committee.—(See also FACTORY INSPECTORS.) This committee supplies information to social workers with regard to the legal protection of the industrial classes. It also inquires into reported breaches of the law and refers them to the proper authorities. Much benefit has accrued from the

establishment of its Indemnity Fund, which provides work or pay for those who suffer dismissal through giving truthful evidence to the inspector. The President is Mrs. H. J. Tennant, formerly superintending Lady Inspector of Factories, and the Secretary is Miss Cox, York Mansion, York Street, W.

Industrial Schools.—(See HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS.)

Inebriate Reformatories.—(See also INEBRIETY.) Legislative action for dealing with inebriates was first taken by the passing of the Habitual Drunkards Act, 1879, as the result of an inquiry by a Departmental Committee permitting the establishment of retreats into which inebriates could be admitted who voluntarily desired control. In the Act an habitual drunkard was defined to mean "a person who not being amenable to any jurisdiction in lunacy is, notwithstanding, by reason of habitual intemperate drinking of intoxicating liquor, at times dangerous to himself, or herself, or to others, or incapable of managing himself or herself, and his or her affairs." By limiting the control to those who voluntarily submitted themselves to treatment the Act was rendered ineffectual in the majority of cases, and in those where some restriction was most desirable. Another committee was appointed and reported in 1893, and upon their recommendations in due course was based the Act passed in 1898. The procedure by which consenting inebriates could enter retreats was extended, and provision made for the detention in reformatories of the worst class of inebriates—those who committed crime as a result of this habit, or who were frequently charged in police courts for drunkenness and disorderly conduct.

Thus there are two classes of

institutions established under the Acts. There are retreats for the treatment of inebriates who can be induced to submit to control for the purpose of reformation. A retreat may be managed by any suitable person or body of persons, and must be licensed by the county or borough council (*q.v.*), of the district in which it is situated. A person who desires admission to a retreat must sign "a request for reception" before a Justice of the Peace, a form which must be supplemented by a "statutory declaration" signed by two friends, or, at any rate, by two persons who can testify that the applicant is an inebriate within the meaning of the Act. The proceedings may be carried out privately. The period of detention must be definitely fixed, and be stated on the document signed by the applicant. When both these documents are executed and the patient has entered the retreat, he can be detained therein until the expiration of the period for which he signed. The second class of institution is for inebriates who are sent there by an order of a court and consists of certified inebriate reformatories established by voluntary organisations or local authorities, and State inebriate reformatories which are under the authority of the Prison Commissioners.

In reviewing the reports of the three departmental committees which have considered the subject, Dr. Branthwaite pointed out in his annual report for the year 1908 that all three strongly recommended that power to commit an inebriate to control in a retreat on the application of friends should be given to a properly constituted court. Concerning the criminal and recidivist inebriate, all three committees agree as to the uselessness of small fines and short imprisonments as remedies for habitual

drunkenness, and as to the necessity for the special treatment of inebriates.

Inebriety.—(See also **INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES.**) The relation of inebriety to pauperism, crime, and many types of mental and physical defects and diseases, has rendered it a question of profound importance, to which scientists and sociologists of almost every country have turned attention. The amount of literature existing in connection with this subject, both in England, America, and on the Continent testifies to its widespread influence. In the impressive words of Dr. Branthwaite, H.M. Inspector under the Inebriates Act, "Every inebriate is either a potential criminal, a burden upon public funds, a danger to himself and others, or a cause of distress, terror, scandal or nuisance to his family and to those with whom he associates. Every inebriate, moreover, by precept, example, neglect of children, and possibly by direct procreation of his species, is reproducing his like, to the detriment of national welfare in years to come." Between alcoholism and crime the connection is marked, and has been scientifically studied in most civilised countries. In England Dr. Sullivan states that in connection with 200 male offenders convicted of murder or of grave homicidal attempts, the number of criminals of alcoholic habits amounted to 158, and in 120 of these, or 60 per cent. the criminal act was directly due to alcoholism. In 500 cases of crimes of less serious character 82 per cent. were attributable to alcoholism. In Sweden among 24,398 prisoners, 17,374, or 71·2 per cent. connected their crime with the use of alcohol. The connection between inebriety and insanity has also been investigated by numerous scientists. Dr. Clouston reports of the Morningside

Asylum, "Alcoholic Insanity steadily goes up; 42.3 per cent. of all our men, and 18 per cent. of our women, had excess in alcohol assigned as the cause of insanity." Dr. Robert Jones, of Claybury Asylum, states that no less than 42 per cent. of all periodic inebriates relate a history of either drink, insanity, or epilepsy in their family. Feeble-mindedness is also a marked accompaniment of inebriety. Dr. Tredgold says: "As to the production of amentia, the importance of grappling with consumption, alcoholism, and defective hygienic conditions cannot be too strongly urged." Dr. Branthwaite found that 62 per cent. of the chronic alcoholics in Inebriate Homes were insane, or markedly mentally defective. Dr. MacNicholl found that out of 6,624 children in America, whose parents had drinking habits, 53 per cent. were classed as dullards; of 13,523 children of abstaining parents, only 10 per cent. were so classed. The influence of parental alcoholism upon the race has formed the subject of long and careful study by many distinguished scientists abroad; the work of Professors Ford, Bunge, Kraepelin, Aschaffenburg, and others give the result of valuable investigations with regard to the questions of heredity, degeneracy, and the general influence of alcohol upon brain activity. Amongst English works of reference, together with those of Sir Victor Horsley, Dr. Kelynack, and papers by Dr. Mott, Dr. Potts and others, the Report of the Departmental Committee, 1908 (Wyman & Sons, price 4½d.) appointed to inquire into the operation of the law relating to inebriates and their detention, gives a most comprehensive summary of the present conditions. Space does not allow of the recommendations being

given in full, a condensed summary of the more important is therefore appended. Perhaps these are best preceded by a definition of Inebriety, which may be fittingly introduced by the words of Dr. Kelynack (Hon. Sec., Society for Study of Inebriety, see Art. "Care and Control of the Inebriate," *Annual Charities Register and Digest*).

"Inebriety is often spoken of as a disease, and in many instances such a conception is no doubt convenient and accurate. But it is essential to discriminate. The moral aspects of the subject must not be overlooked. Inebriety is after all, but a group symptom, and no mere symptomatic classification, which neglects etiological factors and psycho-pathological manifestations, can lead to really reliable and effective treatment. This is clearly recognised in the Committee's Report." (See *Report of Departmental Committee relating to Inebriates*).

"It is quite true that there are inebriates who are congenitally weak-minded—weak in intellect and weak in will—and who are inebriates mainly on account of their mental incapacity. They neither realise the mischief of getting drunk, nor have they the strength of character to struggle against their desire; but although such persons may, in a certain sense of the word, be regarded as diseased, the disease, if it exists, lies in their mental incapacity, which allows of their becoming inebriates, and not in the habit of inebriety. Such persons often have other bad habits, the consequence of their mental condition; but these habits are not separate diseases, but different results of their natural defect. They are wanting in responsibility, not because their inebriety is a disease which attacks and overmasters them, as

influenza might, but because their inebriety rests upon a basis of mental defect.

"From what has been said, it is evident that, if we could produce satiety before the intoxication point is reached, we could cure inebriety and all forms of drunkenness in the most scientific and effectual manner. Short of this mode, the only method that remains is to alter the ratio between self-control and desire, and restore it to the normal, either by diminishing desire, or by increasing self-control, or both.

"It is as important to increase self-control as to diminish desire. Although there are some inebriates in whom self-control is at least up to the average, there is no doubt that in a large number it is deficient, and is exhibited in varied phases of conduct. Many inebriates exhibit lack of self-control, not only in indulgence in drink, but also in the abhorrence of steady employment, in excessive sexual indulgence, in violence of temper, and in other ways.

"The instilment and cultivation of self-control is necessarily an affair of time. It can only be effected by the imposition of steady work, and by a system of rewards and punishments punctually bestowed."

The definition of "habitual drunkard" in the Habitual Drunkards Act, 1879, is, "'Habitual Drunkard' means a person who not being amenable to any jurisdiction in lunacy, is, notwithstanding, by reason of habitual intemperate drinking of intoxicating liquor, at times dangerous to himself or herself, or to others, or incapable of managing himself or herself and his or her affairs."

This so-called definition has given rise to much misunderstanding and has proved very defective in operation. "Taking into consideration

the necessity of including in the definition persons addicted to drugs other than alcohol, and having regard to the other defects disclosed by experience in the existing definition," the following definition is suggested by the Departmental Committee:—

"An inebriate is a person who habitually takes or uses any intoxicating thing or things, and while under the influence of such thing or things, or in consequence of the effects thereof is (a) dangerous to himself or others, or (b) a cause of harm and serious annoyance to his family or others, or (c) incapable of managing himself or his affairs, or of ordinary proper conduct." This definition, although not perfect, at all events marks a great advance.

Infant Consultations.—(See SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS.)

Infant Life Protection.—The Act as to Infant Life Protection, passed in 1897, was enlarged and consolidated in the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER). Any-one taking in a child under seven years for payment must now give notice to the local authorities within forty-eight hours of the receipt of the child, and all such children are periodically inspected by visitors, who may be of either sex, appointed by the local authorities: in London the L.C.C. (for the city the Common Council), in the country the boards of poor law guardians (see VILLAGE NURSING and WOMEN IN SOCIAL WORK).

If infants so boarded out are found to be in overcrowded, dangerous, or insanitary premises, or in immoral surroundings, or under the care of persons who are unfit either by reason of negligence, ignorance, inebriety (*q.v.*), criminal conduct or other cause, the infants may be forcibly removed to a place of

safety. Insurance of the children is forbidden to the foster-parents.

These regulations were first passed as safeguards against baby-farmers, but it is a good thing that they are now extended to cases where only one infant is put out to nurse. Illegitimate children and orphans are chiefly concerned, and the Act only applies to infants taken in apart from their parents. It does not apply to certain charitable institutions, and hospitals, but any institutions for the reception of poor children or young persons may be ordered by the Home Secretary to be inspected by persons appointed for the purpose, even if wholly or partly supported by voluntary contributions.

The "overlying" of a child under three by any person over sixteen, when drunk, is made a punishable offence, also the death of a child under seven by fire or scalding, if the person in charge has left the grate insufficiently guarded. No intoxicating liquors may be given to an infant under five except with doctor's orders, or in case of sickness, or emergency, and no children under fourteen may be taken into the bars of public houses.

Infant Mortality. — **STATISTICS.** By the "rate of Infant Mortality" is meant the number of babies who die under one year old, in any particular place, compared to the total number of births in that place, during any given period—usually during one year. For instance, the average rate of infant mortality for England and Wales was 154 per 1,000 births from 1861-1870, which means that out of every 1,000 babies born during that period an average of 154 died each year before reaching one year old—*i.e.*, rather more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total number. From 1901-1908 the average rate was 133, in 1908

the rate was 121, in 1909 109, in 1910 106. It is found that districts with mining, textile, iron, and pottery industries rank high, those with agricultural or with mixed occupations, suburban, residential and watering-places rank low, irrespective of the question of the employment of married women. For instance, in the mining districts of N.E. England and S. Wales where infant mortality is highest, there is no industry at all for the women.

The rates of different urban districts and large towns show great variation, but not necessarily in proportion to population or to amount of overcrowding (*q.v.*). Sanitation, housing and the employment of mothers, are all, however, factors which influence these statistics. While the general death rate in England and Wales has dropped from 22 per 1,000 living, in 1861 to 15 in 1908, *i.e.*, has decreased by one-third, infant mortality has only decreased by one-fifth, or, taking the average of about the last ten years, only by one-seventh, *i.e.*, the general death-rate has decreased *twice* as much as the infant death rate. And in certain special districts the infant mortality rate has actually risen during the last fifty years (see also PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS).

CAUSES.—*Surroundings.* Bad housing, overcrowding (*q.v.*), filth, contaminated air, lack of sanitation, milk or other food which is impure, are all indirect causes of infant mortality leading chiefly to infantile diarrhœa, which has been described as a filth disease. It is especially encouraged by unclean soil, an insufficient water supply, and imperfect scavenging and sanitary systems, privy middens and cesspools.

Feeding (q.v.). which is unsuitable is frequently the cause of

death, the ignorance of the mother being at the root of this, and of unsuitable clothing, and general mismanagement.

The *mother going out to work* may injure the child because (1) it has artificial instead of breast feeding; (2) it is exposed to cold through being taken out to neighbour or *crèche* (see DAY NURSERIES); (3) is left in the care of young children, or aged and unsuitable persons; (4) is premature through pre-natal causes, especially if the mother works up to the time of confinement (see MATERNITY INSURANCE), or in injurious trades (see DANGEROUS TRADES) such as those using lead, phosphorus, india rubber; dry-cleaning, or in lifting or carrying heavy weights (see FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN). On the other hand, in many cases if the mother did not work she and her children would starve.

The *personality of the parents* (apart from heredity) counts for much. Drunkenness—even if it has not a bad pre-natal effect upon the child—destroys the comfort of home, increases the danger of overlaying, and deprives the infant of rational care. Vice, leading to the spreading of certain diseases, is another cause of infant mortality, and still more of the birth of the diseased, blind (*q.v.*), or feeble-minded.

Illegitimate infants usually have more than twice as high a death-rate as those born in wedlock (see INFANT LIFE PROTECTION), and boys have a higher death rate than girls.

DISEASES. The direct cause of deaths in the first year of infancy in England usually falls under the following heads, in order of proportion :—

(1) (About 30 to 40 per cent.) *Wasting diseases* (including prematurity; atrophy, debility, and marasmus; congenital defects;

injury at birth; want of breast milk, starvation).

(2) (About 20 per cent.) *Bronchitis, Laryngitis, and Pneumonia.*

(3) (About 10 to 20 per cent.) *Diarrhœal diseases.*

(4) (About 10 per cent.) *Convulsions*, proceeding from various undefined causes.

(5) (Under 10 per cent.) *Common infectious diseases (q.v.)*, of which measles and whooping cough are the most deadly.

(6) Undefined causes.

(7) *Tuberculosis.*

(8) *Suffocation* (principally overlaying).

(9) *Meningitis* (not tubercular).

(10) *Syphilis.*

(11) *Erysipelas, rickets, etc.*

Most of the deaths in (1) occur in the first month of life, while (2) and (3) are much more fatal a few months later, and are more prevalent in towns than in country districts, (1) being greater as cause of death in rural than in urban areas. During the last few years deaths from (1), (2) and (3) have increased in proportion to the total number and so have deaths from measles, while other infectious diseases, tuberculosis and syphilis have decreased.

The chief increase (especially in urban areas) has been from prematurity—owing partly, no doubt, to adverse pre-natal conditions—and from diarrhœa, probably owing to the increase in artificial feeding increasing the risk of contaminated milk, and weakness through malnutrition. The number of deaths from epidemic diarrhœa varies according to weather conditions, being greater in hot, dry, summer and autumn months.

REMEDIES. (1) Better sanitation and better housing.

(2) Improvement in the milk supply (see MILK DEPÔTS).

(3) Education of girls in the elementary schools (*q.v.*) and elsewhere

in domestic hygiene (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY) and infant care.

(4) Education of the mothers, in schools for mothers (*q.v.*) and elsewhere.

(5) Health visiting (*q.v.*) and the adoption of the Notification of Births Act (*q.v.*).

(6) Infants' hospitals

(7) Infants' consultations (see SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS).

(8) The regulation by legislation or otherwise of the employment of mothers before and after childbirth, and in dangerous trades (*q.v.*).

(9) Maternity insurance (*q.v.*) and provident maternity clubs (*q.v.*).

(10) Food for nursing mothers in restaurants or in their own homes.

(11) *Crèches* and day nurseries (*q.v.*).

As the causes and conditions of infant mortality are complex, so the remedies are neither few nor simple. All the above schemes have their uses, but many have hardly got beyond the trial stage.

There is still room for much fresh investigation of the subject, and experiments in remedial measures. The two things to fight for are (1) breast-feeding; (2) cleanliness. The mother's love is there, but it wants supplementing sometimes with knowledge and sometimes with material goods. Ignorance and poverty lie behind dirt and disease.

Infectious Diseases.—(See also DISINFECTION, ISOLATION HOSPITALS and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.) Infectious diseases are those affections of the body due to a specific ferment or poison, which invades the system from without and multiplies in the bodily tissues. The poison is a living germ or microbe, and is liable to be transmitted from one person to another, and between human beings and animals. The infection may be given off by

infected persons in various ways, but mainly by the excretions of the body, *e.g.*, the saliva in hydrophobia, the phlegm from the lungs and bronchial tubes in phthisis, influenza and probably measles and whooping cough, the throat secretions in diphtheria and probably scarlet fever, the excretion from the bowels and the urine in typhoid fever. In small pox and chicken pox the contents of the vesicles and pustules are deemed to be infectious. The breath is infectious in many diseases to the extent to which it carries the secretions of the mouth, lungs and air passages; thus there is little danger of infection during quiet respiration, but much greater liability while the patient coughs or talks loudly.

The infection is received likewise by different parts of the body; it is most frequently inspired and absorbed by the mouth, throat, bronchial tubes or lungs.

Several kinds of specific microbes are absorbed with food and drink by the stomach and bowels, *e.g.*, those of diarrhoea, enteric fever and tuberculosis. Many diseases may be inoculated into or under the skin, *e.g.*, small pox, rabies, vaccinia (vaccination), erysipelas, anthrax and glanders. Usually a wound or abrasion of the skin is essential for inoculation.

The virus of infection once absorbed requires a certain period, called incubation, before the symptoms of disease develop. There is a characteristic incubation for each disease, varying, however, within certain limits, *e.g.*, 10-14 days in measles, 3-14 days in scarlet fever. The symptoms once developed, the affected person becomes infectious to others, and continues so for a variable time according to the severity of the disease and the organs affected. Most persons cease to be infectious

when the symptoms disappear, but in isolated cases of diphtheria and enteric fever infectiousness has been found to last for several months or even years after all obvious symptoms have ceased. Other persons may never develop symptoms, and may yet prove infectious to others: such are called "carriers." They are more dangerous as infective agencies than clothing, books, etc.

¶ One attack of an infectious disease gives a variable amount of protection against a further attack. Thus a catarrh appears to protect for a few months, measles for a lifetime. But the amount of protection, like the liability to disease in the first case, depends also on the susceptibility of each individual; thus almost everyone gets measles once, very few have it a second time; only a minority of persons take diphtheria, but a considerable proportion of these are infected more than once.

The term "contagious" strictly means only communicable by contact; syphilis is the best example of a contagious disease, but the term is a useless and misleading one, contagion being only one of the means of conveying infection.

It is impossible to enumerate the infectious diseases. A large proportion of known diseases are now proved or suspected to be the result—direct or indirect—of some infection

Symptoms of some common Infectious Diseases.—(1) *Measles.* This begins with catarrh of eyes and nose, cough and fever. About the fourth day a blotchy, irregular rash comes on the face and spreads to the limbs and trunk.

(2) *Whooping Cough.* This begins with catarrh and slight fever. The cough is obstinate, and gradually becomes more paroxysmal; it is worse at night. After one or two weeks the characteristic whoop is

developed; the patient gives a series of quick short coughs and then a deep inspiration accompanied by a crowing sound. The child is probably infectious as long as the cough lasts.

(3) *Scarlet Fever.* Sometimes this commences with vomiting. There is fever, flushing of face and often headache, and complaint of sore throat. On the second or third day a rash appears on chest and neck, and spreads over the body. It consists of small red points, which are often so close as to resemble at first sight a uniform flush. It varies in brightness at different times and in different parts of the body. It feels like a goose-skin. Similar closely-arranged red spots are seen in the mouth, especially on the soft palate. The throat is very red, with often white patches on the tonsils. The tongue at first is covered with a thick white or yellow fur which disappears in a few days, leaving the surface red, and raw, like a strawberry.

But any of these symptoms may be absent; and the attack is often so mild that the patient makes no complaint. There may be a slight sore throat and no rash, or slight rash and no sore throat.

(4) *Diphtheria* is characterised by a sore throat, in which appear yellowish membranous spots. The neck glands below the ears enlarge, and are painful. There may be running at the nose. The patient looks poorly and depressed, but there is often no fever. Bacteriological examination will show the presence in the nose or throat of diphtheria bacilli. The throat symptoms are often slight, but if the bacilli are found this decides the diagnosis.

(5) *Enteric Fever.* Fever continued for more than a week, and getting rather worse than better is the earliest indication of this

disease. It is seldom possible to decide on the diagnosis under a week. After that time the abdomen swells, and the right lower part of it becomes tender. A few small pink spots appear on the skin over the abdomen. There is usually diarrhœa. The patient is depressed, has headache, and delirium, and the tongue gets coated and dry.

(6) *Chicken Pox* is a mild affection accompanied by an eruption of vesicles on the head, face, limbs and trunk. The vesicles come in crops, fresh ones appearing as the early ones dry up. They contain a clear fluid, and are round or oval.

(7) *Small Pox* is a serious and fatal disease in the unvaccinated, but as commonly now seen in persons protected by vaccination (*q.v.*) is often so slight as to be easily mistaken for chicken pox. The spots come specially on the forehead, and the forearms and palms. They do not come in crops, but for the most part become vesicular and dry up together. In a few days the clear fluid becomes thick and yellow and depressed at the centre of the vesicle. The vesicles are all round, none being oval.

(8) *Mumps* is a mild but painful disease consisting in inflammation of the parotid glands, causing a hard and painful swelling below the ears. The glandular swelling of diphtheria is sometimes mistaken for mumps, with disastrous consequences.

For further information see article "Infection" in Green's *Encyclopædia and Dictionary of Medicine and Surgery*, Chap. VI; *The Health of the State*, by Dr. Newman, Soc. Serv. Ser.; Newsholme's *Hygiene*, 1902.

Infirmaries.—Workhouse infirmaries are the hospitals provided by Poor Law guardians for paupers. Most large workhouses (*q.v.*) have an infirmary attached in a separate

building and under separate medical control, but in some cases the guardians of different unions have combined to provide a common infirmary. Workhouses and outdoor relief (*q.v.*) have been, to a great extent, conducted in a deterrent manner. It was recognised that the sick were not proper objects for such a system, and in London and many large towns the infirmaries, as regards buildings, nursing, accommodation, diet and equipment are not much behind the voluntary general hospitals. The medical treatment, however, suffers from the absence of a consulting medical staff and consequently of specialised medical and surgical treatment. One resident medical superintendent is responsible for surgery, midwifery (see *MIDWIVES*), and all medical treatment. But the small rural unions are less well provided. The sick wards are often part of the general mixed workhouse, and quite unsuited for their purpose. There is no classification of the sick, none or insufficient skilled nursing, no resident medical officer. The visiting medical officer is insufficiently paid, and has to provide in most cases medicine and instruments out of his niggardly remuneration.

For certain infectious diseases the guardians avail themselves of the fever hospitals provided by the sanitary authorities, in London the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*).

The Poor Law infirmary, though provided for paupers, may be, and often is, used by those who were in no sense paupers until they entered it. In such cases medical relief (*q.v.*) is given "on loan," *i.e.* the whole or a part of the cost of treatment is recovered from the patient or his friends. Thus persons accidentally injured are taken to an infirmary if no hospital is near. Lunatics (*q.v.*) are commonly

removed thither before going to a county asylum. There is usually a separate lying-in ward (see LYING-IN CHARITIES) and children's ward, and many infirmaries now have special open wards or balconies for consumptives (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION). A large proportion of the patients suffer from chronic affections, such as rheumatism, and the infirmities of old age.

Inquest.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Ins and Outs.—(See also CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.) At present the workhouse in England has a purely voluntary character (see WORKHOUSES), and by some it is thought to be a point of immense importance in Poor Law administration that the workhouse should be a place from which a man can discharge himself at once. This naturally encourages a large number of inmates to be constantly entering and leaving the house, (see VAGRANTS), and over and over again guardians (*q.v.*) have asked for legislation which would enable them to prevent such persons from discharging themselves at will.

The Pauper Inmates Discharge and Regulation Act of 1871 provides that the guardians of any union may direct that any pauper inmate of the workhouse, or the paupers of any class therein, shall be detained in the workhouse after giving notice to quit the same for times not exceeding the limited periods hereinafter mentioned, that is to say (1) if the pauper has not previously discharged himself from the workhouse within one month before giving the notice, twenty-four hours; (2) if he has discharged himself once or oftener within such month, forty-eight hours; (3) if he has discharged himself more than twice within two months, seventy-two hours. It must, however, be borne in mind that a

pauper can give notice of his discharge immediately on entering or returning to the house. The Poor Law Commissioners of 1909 reported that "under such circumstances the curative treatment of pauperism becomes impossible. The worst characters may flock into the house to recuperate from the effects of their evil lives and as soon as they have, at the ratepayers' cost, partially recovered their physical condition they can leave the house and resume their degenerate careers." In this way has sprung up that crowd of prostitutes, drunkards, mendicants, loafers and the like who are now known as the "ins and outs." It is recommended, therefore, that powers of detention with proper safeguards should be conferred on the local authority.

Some boards of guardians have placed these "ins and outs" in the casual wards (*q.v.*) where the conditions are less pleasant than in the body of the house, and some by means of giving frequent facilities to the better cases to "go out and look for work" have sought to minimise the evil; but still the trouble exists, and our present system in this respect only contributes to producing future paupers which subsequent ratepayers will be called upon to maintain. If powers of detention are given it is generally understood that active improvement can only be achieved by the direction of attention to individual cases in order that the best curative treatment may be applied.

Inspectors.—(See FACTORY INSPECTORS AND SANITARY INSPECTORS.)

Insurance.—(See FIRE INSURANCE, INFANT LIFE PROTECTION, LIFE ASSURANCE, MATERNITY CLUBS and INSURANCE, THRIFT, and WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD.)

Intemperance.—(See CLUBS, REGISTRATION OF; DRUNKENNESS, LAW RELATING TO; INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES; INEBRIETY; LICENSES TO SELL INTOXICATING LIQUORS; PUBLIC HOUSES; and TEMPERANCE SOCIETIES.)

Interim Help.—This name is given to relief granted by charitable societies to applicants who seem to be in immediate need of assistance. It is very seldom given before some preliminary inquiry as to the applicant's character and circumstances has been made, including a visit to the home from which he professes to have come.

International Association for Labour Legislation.—The first definite action towards securing international co-operation for the protection of workpeople was taken by the Emperor William in convening a Congress in Berlin in 1890. A suggestion to the same effect had been put forward by the Swiss Federal Council, who gave place to the Emperor at his request. A development was made in 1897 when, upon their invitation, an international labour congress of trade unionists was held in Zurich and resulted in a resolution that the governments should be invited, through the medium of the Council, to take measures for the establishment of an international labour office. Another conference of men interested in labour matters assembled shortly afterwards in Brussels and supported this suggestion. As a result of further deliberations the International Association for Labour Legislation was founded in Paris in 1901 (1) to serve as a bond of union to those who, in the different industrial countries, believe in the necessity for labour legislation; (2) to establish an international labour office, with the duty of publishing a periodical collection of labour laws of all countries; (3) to facilitate

the study of labour legislation, especially by providing information on the subject, and (4) to further the study of the question of procuring uniformity in the various codes of labour laws, and in international statistics of labour.

The seat of the Association is at Basle. It is formed of national sections who elect representatives to a committee upon which there are also government representatives. The committee elects an executive board. Its meetings are held biennially, and its discussions are based upon printed reports which have been circulated previously to the members. A considerable number of governments, though not the British, grant subsidies to the finances of the Association. The International Labour Office forms a centre for the collection and dissemination of information relating to labour legislation. Printed matter bearing upon the subject is filed, arranged and tabulated so as to be immediately available for reference and use in answering inquiries from individuals, societies and government departments. From the office is issued a bulletin which contains an abstract of the labour legislation promoted in the various countries throughout the world. The bulletin is published in German, French and English. The policy of the Association has been to concentrate attention upon a small number of definite points of reform upon which there was good hope of obtaining general agreement. Thus the abolition of the right of women to work in factories has been dealt with in one international convention and approved by the principal countries of Europe. The prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches has also been effected in the same manner (see DANGEROUS TRADES AND INDUSTRIAL DISEASES). International

action is the chief means by which there can be effected a widespread and general improvement. "It is useless for any single country to endeavour to raise its industrial standard, to improve its laws, to increase its wages, or to guard against dangerous processes if at the same time it is actively engaged in trade competition with other countries where the standard is lower, where the wages are less, and precautions against dangerous processes are less stringent." (Earl of Lytton at a meeting of the British section, April 13, 1910.) It is, therefore, the object of the International Association to secure the passing of the same laws in all competing countries, and to raise the industrial standard in all countries to the level of the most progressive.

Membership of the British section of the International Association is open either to individuals or societies on payment of an annual subscription, and a reference library is being collected at the office of the section in London.

International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic.—(See NATIONAL VIGILANCE ASSOCIATION.)

Invalid Children's Aid Association.—(Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road.) (See also CRIPPLES.) The Invalid Children's Aid Association was formed in 1888 for the purpose of helping, supervising, and, if possible, curing the *seriously invalided and crippled* children of the poor. It works chiefly through visitors, each of whom takes charge of one or more children. The visitors are grouped into districts and branches, of which there are now fifty-eight. The work of each district is controlled by a selected visitor—selected for experience among the poor, organising ability, and (where possible) nursing knowledge. This visitor is styled a representative. Organising

and giving effect to these labours is a strong executive committee, which meets twice a week to consider cases, and to decide as to the steps that should be taken in each instance. Most of the work is carried on in co-operation with the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), whose inquiry agency is placed at the disposal of the Association. The general aim is to obtain for the children the best possible medical treatment, and the means of earning their livelihood in the future. The branches are worked by local committees, but are in close touch with the centre.

The aim of the Association is to secure for every child referred to it, a *friend*, who shall give to it, so far as circumstances permit, unstinted *personal service*; doing for it, and getting done, everything that experience, common sense, and kindness may suggest; and to provide such benefits as skilled nursing; special medical advice; medical comforts, warm clothing; surgical appliances and expensive dressings; the loan of spinal carriages, wheel-chairs, and perambulators; admission into hospitals; admission into nursing, training, or incurable homes in London and in the country; together with "boarding out" in cases for which homes either do not exist or are less suitable.

Treatment is not generally continued after children are fifteen years of age; but if they are learning trades or there are special circumstances, this rule does not apply.

Similar Associations exist in many of the large provincial towns, and of these fifteen are affiliated to the London Association.

Invalidity Insurance.—(See MATERNITY INSURANCE, POOR LAW REFORM and WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD.)

Isolation Hospitals.—(See also NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Isolation or fever hospitals are provided by sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) for the isolation of small pox, scarlet fever, diphtheria, enteric fever and other diseases. Under the Public Health Act, 1875 (*q.v.*), and the Public Health (London) Act any sanitary authority may provide a hospital or maintain beds at an existing hospital) for the sick of their district.

The provision applies to any diseases, but has been made use of mainly for infectious diseases (*q.v.*). Owing, however, to the neglect of many districts to provide such hospitals the Isolation Hospitals Act, 1893, was passed. This Act enables county councils (*q.v.*) to make orders for the joint provision of an isolation hospital by a combination of sanitary authorities, who bear the expense in proportions fixed by the county council.

The cost of maintenance may be recovered by the sanitary authority from the patient or his friends, but as a rule no charge is made. If the patient was a pauper on admission the guardians (*q.v.*) are responsible for his maintenance.

In London the fever hospitals are provided and managed by the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*). The cost of maintenance comes out of the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (*q.v.*). No charge is made for treatment or maintenance, and all classes are treated alike.

The hospitals have been built on a magnificent scale and are maintained at great expense, the staff being necessarily very large. The fact that small pox is now a rare disease in London is largely attributable to the excellent arrangements of the board for isolating this disease. From 85-90 per cent. of the notified cases of scarlet fever and diphtheria in London are removed to one of the fever hospitals.

Persons desiring more private

treatment may be admitted to the London Fever Hospital, where a charge is made graduated according to ability to pay, and separate rooms may be obtained.

The expectation that scarlet fever and diphtheria might be abolished by isolating notified cases has met with disappointment, there having been little diminution in the number of cases in spite of the great increase of isolation. But the result has been distinctly good in the lessened fatality of these diseases. Infection is kept up by cases which are so mild as to escape detection and isolation.

Many medical officers of health (*q.v.*) now think that equally good if not better results would be obtained by treating at home all cases whose homes offer suitable accommodation for this, and only sending to hospital patients who could not be so isolated.

(For full particulars of Isolation Hospitals see *Burdett's Hospitals and Asylums of the World*, Churchill.)

Jewel Case Lining and Covering.

—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Jewellery and Goldsmithing.—

(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Jewellery and Silver Polishing.—

(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Jewish Boards of Guardians.—

(See also JEWISH WOMEN'S WORK.) In most of the principal towns of the United Kingdom the Jewish community have constituted organisations for the administration of charitable relief. In the larger they are boards of guardians and in the smaller benevolent associations. The Jewish Board of Guardians, with its headquarters in the East End of London, naturally holds a foremost position, and a brief account of it will help to show the lines upon which the work has been taken up both in London and the chief provincial centres. The constitution

of the Board was the outcome of a realisation of the somewhat perfunctory manner in which charitable relief was administered by the three synagogues, who agreed, in 1859, to co-operate in caring for the "strange poor." From the outset the work of the Board has been directed definitely to the encouragement of self-help. The system of granting loans was begun in the first year of its existence, and by 1867 had attained to such magnitude as to necessitate its transference to a separate committee. It began by lending the sewing machines which had been given by an anonymous donor with a view to give employment to the poor. They were lent to carefully selected borrowers, who were permitted to purchase them on the instalment system by payments of 2s. per week until the total cost had been defrayed, when the machine became the property of the borrower. The committee, however, had the funds to repeat the operation. The success of their work justified its extension in two directions: (1) The loan of tools and implements to carpenters, cabinet-makers, shoemakers, printers, book-binders, and other mechanics on the same basis as that on which the loans of sewing machines to tailors and umbrella makers had been conducted; and (2) giving security for tailors and mechanics to enable them to obtain work from warehouses and workshops. Among the developments of the Industrial Committee was the encouragement of apprenticeship, which was early recognised to be a remedy for unemployment. In fact, the Jewish Board was one of the earliest bodies to organise this work on an important scale. The Committee is now affiliated with the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*). A Past Apprentices' League has been formed with the object of bringing together lads

who have fulfilled their terms of apprenticeship. It is hoped that the members will render assistance to one another in cases of need, and will place their experience and services at the disposal of the Committee. In connection with the work among girls, arrangements have been made to send some for a holiday. It is pointed out that having left school they are beyond the scope of the Children's Country Holiday Fund (*q.v.*), and that they often feel their first year's work very arduous, often grow very much, and need the holiday then even more than they did before, but do not earn enough to pay for a holiday for themselves until they reach the age of eighteen or nineteen.

In the administration of relief it has been a guiding principle from the outset that there should be no relief without stringent inquiry. Provisions and fuel, blankets and flannel clothing have been distributed instead of money, thus removing what seemed a likely means of pauperisation, and ensuring that relief should be adapted to the actual necessities of each case. Assistance has also been granted by means of temporary or fixed allowances, and in some cases resort has been had to emigration (see COLONISATION). In the course of over fifty years the Board has become far more than merely a body for the organisation of relief, and its present position may be summed up in an extract from the jubilee volume of Mr. Laurie Magnus: "It is a representative body dependent upon voluntary subscriptions, administered by the subscribers (or their synagogal representatives) themselves. It dispenses annually a large sum of public money, and controls a considerable funded estate; it is equipped with a permanent staff, housed in suitable premises, with

separate departments for its non-elementary work; it has been entrusted with a leading part in public questions affecting the welfare of the Jewish community in England; it has established harmonious relations with older institutions, some of which it has absorbed, and with others of which it is associated by conjoint committees. Lastly, its charitable work and methods are promoting, as its founders intended, the moral aim of uplifting the condition of the Jewish poor, and of raising their status as citizens and men."

Jewish Women's Work.—Jewish women take an active part in all philanthropic and social movements. In 1902, a Union of Jewish Women was formed at the termination of a successful conference, which was attended by Jewish women from all parts of the kingdom. This Union works on similar lines to the National Union of Women Workers (*q.v.*), with which it is affiliated, but owing to its sectarian character, it also partakes of the character of the Girls' Friendly Society (*q.v.*) and the Young Women's Christian Association (*q.v.*). The Committee of the Union also administers a small loan fund to enable ladies of small means to train for skilled employments. The Union has a membership of 1,500, and has branches or correspondents in most provincial towns, the Colonies, and many Continental cities.

Among other philanthropic undertakings in London, women largely assist in the work of the Jewish Board of Guardians (*q.v.*), serving on the Workrooms, Visitation, Clothing, and Sanitary Committees, and they are members of the Board. The apprenticeship of girls is entirely managed by ladies, and joint committees of men and women conduct the work of the Society to provide penny dinners for school

children, the Jewish Branch of the Children's Country Holiday Fund (*q.v.*), the Children's Happy Evenings Association (*q.v.*), the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls and Women, the Jewish Religious Education Board, the Teachers' Training Committee, the Bayswater Jewish Schools, the Jews' Hospital and Orphan Asylum, and the Spanish and Portuguese Schools. In educational work, women also serve as managers of several elementary schools (*q.v.*), and as organisers of Jewish working girls' clubs. Separate ladies' committees assist in the administration of the Jews' Free School, the Westminster Jews' School, the Stepney Jewish Schools, the Anglo-Jewish Association, the Norwood Orphan Asylum, the Home for Incurables, the Jewish Convalescent Homes, etc.

Among the Jewish charities which are managed entirely by women are the Jewish Ladies' Clothing Association, the Jewish Ladies' West End Charity, the Jewish Ladies' Benevolent Institution, the Jewish Crèche, the Sick Room Helps Society (*q.v.*), etc.

Job Printing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Joining.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Justice.—(See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.)

Juvenile Advisory Committees.—(See APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, BOY LABOUR, and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Juvenile Emigration.—(See COLONISATION, CHILD.)

Juvenile Offenders.—(See also ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, CHILDREN'S COURTS and HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS.) For many years there was a growing feeling against the commitment of children to prison, yet as recently as 1897 fifty-eight children under twelve years of age and 1,630 between twelve and sixteen were so committed. In 1908-9

the number had fallen to four and 525 respectively; and with the passing of the Children Act (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), in 1908, the term "juvenile offender" lost much of its meaning, since it was enacted that no child under fourteen shall in any circumstances be committed to gaol, nor any "young person" under sixteen, "unless the court certifies that the young person is of so unruly a character that he cannot be detained in a place of detention . . . or that he is of so depraved a character that he is not a fit person to be so detained," but even in this case, and, however grave the crime, penal servitude cannot be imposed. Moreover, the conviction of a juvenile is no longer regarded as a conviction of felony for the purposes of any disqualification attaching to felony.

The offences for which children under fourteen usually come under the notice of the authorities are continued failure to attend the elementary schools (see ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL), wandering, begging, and petty thieving; whereas young persons are nearly always guilty of theft. Approximately, 75 per cent. of such offenders are drawn from the very poorest quarters of any large centre. The Court has power, in lieu of sentencing the culprit to imprisonment, to order him to be committed to custody in a place of detention, *e.g.*, a remand home (*q.v.*) (see BOYS' SHELTERS), for a period not exceeding one month, but this method is practically never adopted. If the child is under fourteen and the circumstances, namely the home surroundings and general character of the parents, appear to warrant such a step, he is generally sent to an industrial school, or, if he has been guilty of thieving, to a reformatory; while children between fourteen and sixteen years of age may be committed to a

reformatory school until they are nineteen years of age. An excellent innovation made by the Children Act was to render parents or guardians liable to be fined in lieu of juvenile offenders, whether with or without other punishment, in cases where parental neglect or bad conduct have led the latter to err.

Whether inmates of an industrial or reformatory school, or industrial or reformatory training ship (see HOME OFFICE TRAINING SHIPS), the boys or girls may be discharged on licence some considerable time—a year or more—before the term of their original commitment has expired, if their general conduct warrants it, and there is reasonable hope that they will not abuse their liberty.

In addition to the ordinary industrial schools, the Truant Schools (*q.v.*) of London and Glasgow, and the Day Industrial Schools (*q.v.*) of Manchester, have been used with great success in dealing with delinquent children.

An alternative course is to place an offender under the care of a relative or other fit person, or under a probation officer (*q.v.*) as provided in the Act of 1907—an Act of which sufficient advantage is not yet taken, which, on the other hand, should not be applied in cases where it is evident that wayward and possibly thieving habits have already been formed, that the home is bad, and that a total change of environment has become necessary. In most cases where juveniles are concerned, it is the home that requires attention quite as much as the child, and whatever may be done for the child loses in value if at the same time efforts are not made to alter the conditions which have caused the offender to commit the acts which have brought him under the notice of the authorities.

Boys may be punished by whipping, but this punishment is rarely resorted to except in cases where the home is good and a fine appears unlikely to effect amendment.

The question of the treatment of juvenile offenders is an important one, for their numbers are not small, as is testified by the fact that no less than 3,500 are on an average brought before the London courts each year.

Juvenile Smoking.—The law on the subject is contained in the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER). Any person selling to a person apparently under the age of sixteen years any cigarette or cigarette papers is liable to a fine. Any constable or park-keeper in uniform may seize any cigarettes or cigarette papers in the possession of any person apparently under the age of sixteen, whom he finds smoking in any street or public place, and is authorised to search any boy so found smoking, "but not a girl." The owner of premises upon which there is an automatic machine for the sale of cigarettes extensively used by young persons may be ordered to remove it. The Act does not apply to young persons employed by a manufacturer or of dealer in tobacco, either wholesale or retail, for the purposes of his business, or a boy messenger in uniform in the employment of a messenger company. But the Act does apply to tobacco other than cigarettes, except that a person shall not be guilty of an offence for selling such other tobacco to a person apparently under the age of sixteen years if he did not know, and had no reason to believe, that it was for the use of such person.

King Edward's Hospital Fund.—Queen Victoria selected the scheme embodied in this fund to commemorate her Diamond Jubilee.

The late King Edward VII as Prince of Wales was the prime mover in its establishment to the purpose of helping the voluntary hospitals (*q.v.*) of London. From the outset its reception into public favour was assured and the fund has maintained steady progress. In 1907 a special Act of Parliament was passed, and the administration is conducted in accordance therewith. The main business of the fund is in the hands of a general council acting through an executive committee and delegating portions of the work to the Finance Distribution, and Convalescent Homes Committees. The finances of the fund are derived from (1) subscriptions and donations; (2) income from investments; (3) legacies, and (4) subscriptions of one shilling and upwards obtained through the League of Mercy (*q.v.*). The other committees decide the terms upon which grants shall be made to the various institutions within the scope of their respective operations. Besides affording valuable aid to the maintenance of hospitals, the fund has secured greater economy and efficiency. It has promoted the amalgamation of groups of small hospitals devoted to the treatment of special diseases. It has issued annually, since 1904, a statistical report on hospital expenditure and prices which have provided information and suggestion to the governing bodies. Many hospitals have adopted a uniform system of accounts. The fund distributed £50,000 in 1900, £100,000 in 1902, and £150,000 in 1909.

King's Police Medal.—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.)

King's Royal Charities.—In addition to the Maundy Money (*q.v.*) there are six other forms of assistance from the funds of the Royal Almonry. Application must be made in the same manner and at

the same time as for the Royal Maundy. No cases of candidates under sixty years of age will be entertained unless the applicants are suffering from some severe bodily disablement, which totally incapacitates them from earning their living. His Majesty's Royal Common Bounty is a grant of ten shillings a year, payable in two equal moieties on the Monday before Christmas and the Monday before Easter, to deserving poor who, by reason of their age and infirmity, are no longer able to support themselves. His Majesty's Royal Gate Alms is a gift of sixpence a week payable in two sums of thirteen shillings on the same days to persons who at one time have been in a superior position to that of the labouring poor. His Majesty's Royal Discretionary Bounty is an annual gift of £3, payable on the Monday before Easter, to persons who, although eligible for the Maundy are unable to be placed in that class in consequence of the lists being full, and to certain others whom the Lord High Almoner may consider deserving of more substantial help than the Gate Alms, who are not qualified for the Maundy. His Majesty's Royal Pensions of from five to ten pounds per annum each are payable to persons who have formerly been in a good station in life, and who, from no fault of their own, are in necessitous circumstances. They are paid half-yearly at Christmas and Easter as the first two classes. Four allowances of five guineas each are payable on the Monday before Easter Day to children of parents who previously have held a good position in life, but now are prevented by misfortune from maintaining fittingly their offspring, towards the continuance of their education. The recipients are called children of the Royal Almonry, and are only eligible between the

ages of seven and fourteen. Occasional or single grants of various sums from the surplus fund are made to meet the needs of any special case brought under the notice of the Lord High Almoner to the King for immediate relief.

"Knocking up."—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Knotters.—(See CHILD LABOUR II.)

Kyrle Society.—A letter written by Miss Miranda Hill entitled "A Suggestion to those who have beautiful things," in which she appealed for their diffusion among our poorer brethren led to the formation of this society in 1876. The name given to it is due to the fact that Pope's lines in praise of the "Man of Ross" in the third moral essay suggested the line of thought embodied in Miss Hill's letter—the Man of Ross, being the description of John Kyrle (1637-1724). The objects of the society are classified in four sections. The open spaces branch endeavours to secure and lay out open spaces for the public, and to co-operate in the preservation of commons, burial grounds, village greens and other spaces; to provide seats, plants, etc., for public gardens; to distribute cut-flowers, plants, ferns, and bulbs to hospitals (*q.v.*), workhouses (*q.v.*), and other institutions, and amongst the homes of the poor, and to encourage window gardening. The literature branch distributes books, magazines, and periodicals to hospitals, infirmaries (*q.v.*), workhouses, clubs and libraries for the benefit of the poor. The decorations branch ornaments workmen's clubs, hospital wards, parish rooms and similar places in such way as opportunity offers and endeavours to foster a knowledge and love of art. The objects of the musical branch are to organise voluntary choirs to perform in districts where good music can

hardly otherwise be heard by the poor. The society extends its benefit so far as its funds allow, not only in the United Kingdom but also to other parts of the Empire. There are also affiliated societies in Birmingham, Bristol, Cheltenham, Leicester, Liverpool, Nottingham and Warrington, besides two in Scotland.

Labour Colonies.—(See ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Labour [Co-partnership. — (See PROFIT SHARING AND LABOUR CO-PARTNERSHIP.)

Labour Exchanges.—(See POOR LAW REFORM and UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Labour Legislation.—(See INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LABOUR LEGISLATION.)

Labour Yards.—(See also INS AND OUTS.) It may be roughly stated by way of definition that a labour yard was a form of relief "originated for the benefit of the genuine worker in time of distress," which was taken advantage of by the "good-for-nothing loafer" (see VAGRANTS). Their history almost everywhere spells failure from the point of view of the permanent uplifting of the individual. A great deal depends naturally on a strong administration, but when once it has "been taken over" by the loafer, the genuine worker will have nothing to do with it. The loafer and the lowest class must be kept out of it, and other methods must be adopted for them.

The labour yard, too, has a distinct relation to the industrial world outside, and evidence was given to the Poor Law Commissioners of 1909 (see POOR LAW REFORM) that the "competition of charitable societies and Poor Law Guardians in the matter of the firewood trade is ruining the independent employer," and that

"men actually gave up good outside work to enter the yard," and its closure did not cause distress.

In a circular issued, in 1892, to boards of guardians by the President of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), the following guiding principles were laid down which serve as a general basis of efficient labour tests. The work offered outside the workhouse (see WORKHOUSES), (*i.e.*, in the labour yard), should be—

(1) Work which will not involve the stigma of pauperism ;

(2) Work which all can perform, whatever may have been their previous avocations ;

(3) Work which does not compete with that of other labourers at present in employment ; and

(4) Work which is not likely to interfere with the resumption of regular employment in their own trades by those who seek it.

Lace Finishing.—(See TRADE BOARDS.)

Lacquering.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Ladder League.—(See CHURCH ARMY.)

Lads' Clubs in the North of England.—(See also BOYS' CLUBS.) During the last twenty years large undenominational clubs, as distinguished from the innumerable small clubs connected with religious bodies, have become a marked feature of boy-life in the North of England, especially in Lancashire, where some of the clubs enter the names of from 700 to 2,400 lads on their books each year. In Manchester, Salford, and district there are over thirty clubs, nine of which have a membership of over 500, a number not provided for by any boys' club in London. But as these clubs generally occupy specially built premises, and are, for the most part, admirably organised, their size does not appear responsible for any appreciable loss of efficiency,

whilst the annual cost per head, averaging from £1 to £2, is considerably less than in most southern clubs which make any at all comparable provision for their members. The Manchester Federation, formed in 1907, embraces twenty-eight clubs, and represents fully 12,000 boys.

While these clubs have all been founded primarily to keep boys off the streets by offering counter attractions in the shape of opportunities for wholesome recreation after their day's work, the larger number encourage or insist on some continuance of education either within their own walls or at neighbouring evening schools. Not only are classes for physical drill, carpentry, carving, bent-iron work, modelling, singing, orchestral music and such subjects, as well as instruction in the three "R's" provided, but the larger clubs in Manchester, Salford, and Burnley have organised on their premises evening schools (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS) under the Education authorities, and provide excellent courses of instruction in all commercial subjects, machine drawing, mathematics, etc. The Openshaw Lads' Club Evening School in Manchester is by far the largest in the city. The usual method of coercing junior members (*i.e.*, lads under seventeen or eighteen) to attend classes for three or four hours weekly is to withhold from them certain privileges if they fail to attend without good cause. Those who qualify by due application to their studies are commonly rewarded by a substantial grant towards the sum required for the week's encampment at the seaside, which is an almost universal feature of lads' club work in the North (see BOYS' CAMPS).

The customary fees are: Entrance, 2d. to 6d.; weekly subscription, 1d. for juniors, 2d. for

seniors, who generally occupy separate rooms, and are lads of from eighteen to twenty-one years of age, though in clubs unconnected with suitable institutions for men "old boys" are often retained for many years.

All kinds of indoor games (with the exception usually of cards and dominoes) are provided—billiards, chess, draughts, and rings being the most popular—and many clubs provide facilities for baths, boxing, fives, racquets, roller-skating, miniature rifle shooting, etc., whilst all of any size have well-equipped gymnasias. Off the premises, football (the game of all others for Northern boys), cricket, harriers, and swimming are strongly encouraged by every club.

A few clubs have excellent libraries, containing in one case over a thousand carefully chosen volumes.

Whilst clubs of this type are not connected with religious institutions, attendance at some place of worship is always urged by the authorities, who, in addition, in most clubs arrange special services every Sunday for members not attached to any church or chapel.

Northern clubs which deserve special mention for their unique methods are the Hull Boys' Club, whose members are of the very lowest class, and must join between the ages of eight and eleven, and the network of over fifty small clubs for boys of a similar type formed since 1904 by the Birmingham Street Children's Union, an organisation which has been extraordinarily successful in securing a large number of helpers. In general the most urgent need of lads' clubs is for more officers. No special qualifications are needed for the work, and it is particularly suited to ex-public school and university men.

Lady Almoners.—(See HOSPITALS.)

Lady Rent Collectors.—A system of managing small house property, by substituting ladies for the ordinary professional rent collector, was first organised by Miss Octavia Hill in 1864, at the instigation and with the help and encouragement of Mr. Ruskin. The scheme originated in the belief that there are two sides of the housing problem, one the difficulty of providing proper accommodation for the working classes at a rent which they can afford to give, and the other the difficulty presented by the habits and characters of the tenants. There is a section of the population which is quite incapable of benefiting by good houses, and which would speedily convert them into slums. It was to the solution of the latter difficulty that Miss Hill mainly devoted herself, and in doing so helped to solve the former as well. The results obtained by her and by her workers proved conclusively that much may be done to improve the character of a court or street by using the business relation of landlord and tenant as a means of exercising personal influence on the latter. The rent collector has the right of entry to the houses; she can insist on cleanliness, order, and punctuality of payment; she must satisfy herself that the house is not overcrowded, and that the sleeping arrangements of the family are suitable. Her influence thus tends to make the tenants better tenants both from the moral and the business point of view. The independence of the tenant is recognised and, indeed, insisted on, but he can benefit by the judgment, experience, and wider knowledge of the collector, if he will. The financial results of the scheme have proved most satisfactory in the majority of cases.

The methods adopted are very simple. The rent collector calls once a week for the rent, sees what

repairs, if any, are needed, and has the opportunity of a talk with the tenants and of establishing friendly relations with these. She is generally responsible for all minor repairs, for which she is allowed a fixed percentage, and she is also paid a regular commission on the rents collected, in order that, even if the work be voluntary, she may not compete unfairly with the professional rent collector. The system is now at work not only in many parts of London, but also in various towns throughout the country.

Land Banks.—(See CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.)

Land Reclamation.—(See also POOR LAW REFORM, RURAL DEVELOPMENT, SMALL HOLDINGS, and UNEMPLOYMENT.) Under the Foreshores Act of 1866 the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) has power to reclaim foreshores, and several experiments have in consequence been made. Reclamation on an extensive scale had been undertaken before that Act in some cases by the enterprise of landowners. In 1814 some 60,481 acres were reclaimed in the East Fen and Wildmore. The improved annual value of the land thus reclaimed has been estimated at £110,561; while reckoning interest at 5 per cent. on the capital laid out in carrying out the scheme, an annual charge of £29,035 should be deducted from this increased value, thus leaving a net improved annual value of £81,526. The land reclaimed in this case was formerly covered by the sea at each high tide, and now is the site of rich cornfields and comfortable homesteads.

Another stretch of fertile land at Pitflore, on the banks of the Forth, was reclaimed, and the outlay repaid in less than ten years. On the banks of the Tay, in Perthshire, 63 acres were reclaimed at the rate of £24 per acre, and the soil so recovered was so rich that no

manuring was needed for nine years.

It has been suggested that the Wash might be the scene of an extensive scheme that would lead to the reclamation of a considerable quantity of land of great natural fertility.

A good deal of land has been reclaimed in Ireland during the last century by peasants, who were induced to make almost incredible exertions by the hope of making a little spot of land their own. A range of rocky hills near Wexford, about 700 ft. above sea-level, almost destitute of soil or vegetation, affords an illustration of reclamation under such conditions. Rocks were broken, buried or rolled away, or utilized, as is common on Dartmoor, to form rough fences. The land thus cleared was gradually enriched with soil, manured, and tilled, each holding often only amounting to half an acre, and few exceeding 10 to 15 acres. The occupiers hold by the right of possession.

Two systems for bringing land into use have been urged: One is to reclaim land at Government expense, using the employment thus created to absorb unemployed workmen during times of trade depression, and then offering the land to tenants for cultivation, the rents to be determined by the capital expenditure and the increasing or diminishing demand for land in the neighbourhood; the other method is to offer such land to peasant cultivators already holding some land in its proximity, leave them to reclaim the land gradually as they have opportunity, and charge them merely a nominal rent, leaving the value added to the land by their work untaxed and unrented.

The experience of Holland undoubtedly suggests the value of systematic reclamation of land as a means of adding to the productive powers of the British Isles.

Landlord and Tenant.—(See also DISTRESS.)

1. *The Agreement.* A tenancy is created by agreement between landlord and tenant. Such agreement may be either verbal or in writing, except in the case of leases for a term of more than three years, which must be made by deed. A written agreement, after stating the length of the term, the amount of rent, and the days on which it is payable, usually contains conditions as to repairs, payment of rates and taxes, etc.

(a) *The Rent Book.* Where houses are let on weekly tenancies, written agreements are rare, but the tenant is supplied with a rent book, which states the rent payable, and may contain other particulars, *e.g.*, as to a deposit. Unless the contrary is expressly stated in the rent book, it may be assumed that in tenancies of this nature the landlord enters into no covenant to do repairs, and (apart from his liability under statute mentioned below) is under no obligation to keep the premises in good condition. Where, however, a house is let in flats or tenements, and the staircases and landings are in the possession of the landlord, he is bound to keep them in a reasonably safe state of repair, and will be liable if the tenant suffers damage owing to a hidden defect, *e.g.*, by falling through a rotten stair; but he is under no obligation to keep the staircase or landings lighted. It is customary in the case of weekly tenancies for the landlord to pay rates and taxes, and where a tenant not being in arrear with his rent has his furniture seized or is himself imprisoned for non-payment of rates, he can recover damages against his landlord.

(b) *Premiums and Deposits.* Upon taking possession a tenant is sometimes required to pay a fine or premium to the landlord. A premium

of this kind is a payment for the privilege of renting the house, and cannot be recovered at the end of the tenancy. It must be distinguished from a deposit, *i.e.*, a sum of money deposited by the tenant with the landlord to secure payment of the rent. At the end of the tenancy and upon payment by the tenant of all rent owing, the landlord is bound to return the deposit. An indiscriminating use of the word "key-money" as meaning either a premium or a deposit frequently leads to confusion and disputes in this matter; but in practice it is found that unless the sum paid by the incoming tenant is expressly stated either in the rent-book or elsewhere in writing to be a deposit, it is difficult to recover it from the landlord.

2. *Liability of Landlord to Keep the Premises in Repair.*

By the Housing and Town Planning, etc., Act, 1909 (extending an earlier Act), it is provided that when the tenancy commences on or after the 4th December, 1909, there is an implied condition that the house is at the commencement of the tenancy, and will during the tenancy be kept by the landlord reasonably fit for human habitation. These provisions only apply to houses the yearly rent of which does not exceed the following amounts: (a) in London, £40 (15s. 4d. weekly); (b) in other towns of 50,000 and more inhabitants, £26 (10s. weekly); (c) elsewhere, £16 (6s. 1d. weekly). The wife and family of a tenant, not being parties to the tenancy agreement, have no remedy against the landlord for breach of this implied condition.

3. *Notice to Quit.* Where premises are held for no specified term, but on a yearly, monthly, or weekly tenure, either party wishing to determine the tenancy must, in the absence of express agreement to the

contrary, give reasonable notice of his intention to the other party. In the case of a yearly tenancy, a half-year's notice dating from the commencement of one of the years of the tenancy is sufficient, except in the case of agricultural holdings, where a year's notice is necessary. In monthly or weekly tenancies a month's and a week's notice are respectively required. Notice to quit need not be in writing. A written notice may be served either on the tenant in person or on any person whose duty it is to deliver it to the tenant, *e.g.*, his wife or servant. If the landlord either accepts or distrains for rent which becomes due after the expiration of the notice, he thereby waives such notice; but not so, if he accepts or distrains for rent which is already in arrear at the time when the notice expires. A tenant who has given notice and holds over (*i.e.*, retains possession of the premises) after the notice has expired is liable to pay double rent.

After the expiration of a notice to quit or upon other determination of the tenancy, a tenant retaining possession is a trespasser, and the landlord has the following remedies:—

(1) He may re-enter, provided that such re-entry is not accompanied by violence. Even where he enters by forcibly breaking into the house, he is entitled to evict the tenant and his family and possessions with such amount of force as may be necessary, and though he may thus render himself liable to a criminal prosecution for forcible entry, the tenant cannot recover damages in a civil action either on account of the entry or the eviction, though he has a right of action in respect of wrongful acts done in the course of or after such forcible entry.

(2) The landlord may take proceedings in the High Court, or in

cases where neither the annual value nor the rental of the premises exceeds £50 and no premium has been paid, in the county court, and obtain an order for possession.

(3) When the term of the lease is not more than seven years and the rent not more than £20 per annum, the landlord may apply to a magistrate or justices, who have powers to order the police within a period of not less than twenty-one or more than thirty days to enter the premises, if necessary, by force. Such an order does not preclude the landlord from exercising his right of peaceable re-entry before the expiration of the twenty-one days.

Latch-key Voter.—(See FRANCHISE.)

Laundries.—In the Bill of 1901 it was originally proposed that laundries worked by mechanical power should be deemed to be factories, and that other laundries, should be deemed to be workshops, and if this proposal had been passed, the Act would have applied to laundries, which would thus have been subject to the conditions and hours mentioned under FACTORY AND WORKSHOPS ACT, 1901, Definition of Terms (*q.v.*); but the clauses relating to laundries were withdrawn, and the law of 1895 on the subject left unaltered. It was not until 1907 that ordinary commercial laundries and laundries attached to another business or to any public institution were included in the list of non-textile factories and workshops. The provisions with respect to hours and sanitary regulations in ordinary commercial laundries, however, differ in some important respects from the regulations in force for non-textile factories and workshops. Laundries which are carried on in connection with a factory—that is, laundries which prepare new goods for sale—are under the same provisions as the factories or workshops with which

they are connected; but in laundries carried on for ordinary commercial purposes the provisions of the principal Act apply with certain special exemptions. The occupier of a laundry may elect to work his employees on one of the two systems of employment mentioned hereafter, but he must not change his system oftener than once a year. On any three days in the week, except Saturday, the employer may occupy the woman worker from 6 a.m. until 7 p.m., from 7 a.m. till 8 p.m., or from 8 a.m. till 9 p.m., provided that the total number of hours of the periods of employment in the week does not exceed sixty-eight hours, including meal intervals; or the employer may on not more than four days in the week, other than Saturday, and on not more than sixty days in the year, employ his workers from 6 a.m. to 7 p.m., from 7 a.m. to 8 p.m., or from 8 a.m. to 9 p.m. The Act also allows different periods of employment to be fixed for different days in the week. In every laundry where mechanical power is used a fan must be provided for regulating the temperature in the ironing room and for carrying away the steam in the washhouse. All stoves for heating irons must be sufficiently separated from any ironing room or ironing table; gas irons emitting noxious fumes must not be used; and floors must be kept in good condition and drained, so as to allow the water to flow off freely. Other sanitary regulations concerning laundries are similar to those in force for non-textile factories and workshops.

As is well known, there are many laundries carried on in connection with institutions for charitable or reformatory purposes. These, when labour is engaged in the washing or cleaning of "articles not intended for the use of the institution" are brought under the provisions of the

Act, although they are not conducted for gain. An institution is, however, allowed to submit for the approval of the Secretary of State a scheme for the regulation of the hours of employment, the intervals for meals, the holidays of the workers, and the education of the children. After this scheme is approved as not less favourable than the corresponding provisions of the Factory and Workshop Acts, it has to be laid on the tables of both Houses of Parliament for forty days, and unless a resolution is passed by either House that the scheme should be annulled, it becomes law for that particular institution. The medical officer of the institution may be appointed certifying surgeon. (See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.) In institutions carried on for reformatory purposes the inspector is not allowed to question an inmate except in the presence of the manager, or with his consent; but this regulation may be suspended if the Home Secretary has reason to believe that the law is being broken. Particulars of institutions claiming these exemptions must be sent to the Secretary of State not later than the 15th of January in each year.

Laundry Work.—(See DOMESTIC ECONOMY.)

Lead Poisoning.—The Home Secretary is empowered to make regulations for dangerous trades (*q.v.*), and all the industries in which lead is known to be used are now scheduled as dangerous. In spite of these rules, many of which have been in force for ten years, lead poisoning continues to claim its victims. During the years 1900 to 1909 6,762 cases (1,065 in potteries) of lead poisoning were officially notified, and of these 275 (57 in potteries) were immediately fatal. In 1896 the notifying of cases of poisoning was made compulsory, and between that year and

1902 the number of attacks in potteries fell from 74 to 13 per 1,000 workers. In 1903, Lord James of Hereford, as arbitrator, fixed a scheme of compensation for lead poisoning. Since that year the cases reported per year have varied from 84 to 107, except in 1909, when they fell to 58. The committee appointed in 1908 held that this lack of progress was partly due to neglect of the employers and partly to carelessness on the part of the workers.

Dr. Goadby and Dr. Goodbody, after considerable research, have come to the conclusion that lead in the form of dust enters the lungs, causing minute and microscopical hæmorrhage in various portions of the body. Varying degrees of paralysis, colic, anæmia, and other symptoms are discernible in the patient. Women are more susceptible to lead poisoning than men, and miscarriages and stillbirths are abnormally frequent among lead workers. The evil is not confined to cases specially notified, because the health of all the operatives is impaired at some period of their lives, unless special and elaborate precautions are taken.

There are more than twenty industries in which lead is used, but special attention has recently been called to the manufacture of china and earthenware, owing to the report of a Departmental Committee which was appointed in 1908 to consider the effects of lead and other dust in pottery works. The scope of inquiry included 550 pottery works employing 63,000 persons; and although the recommendations in the Report, which was issued in 1910, are too numerous and detailed to permit of a summary statement, their effect is broadly to advise the strengthening and better observance of the existing Home Office (*q.v.*) regulations.

Should these precautions not produce the desired results within two years, the Committee recommended that women under forty-five should be excluded from the most dangerous processes. It also urged that whenever possible the public should buy leadless glaze ware. Miss Tuckwell, the one dissentient member of the Committee, recommended that a list of china and earthenware goods which can be made with leadless glaze should be scheduled by the Home Secretary, and that the manufacture of these articles with lead glaze should be prohibited. Pottery workers suffer from the inhalation of dust without lead, and this evil was also dealt with by the committee.

League of Mercy.—The object of the League is to promote the welfare and further the objects of King Edward's Hospital Fund (*q.v.*). It does so by means of an organisation corresponding to an order of knighthood. The Order of Mercy, consisting of a red cross surmounted by the Prince of Wales' crown or feathers, and having in the centre a group of figures representing Charity, is bestowed for distinguished personal services rendered to the League in furtherance of its objects. Members undertake to secure every year (*a*) at least twenty subscribers of 1s. or upwards to be called associates, or (*b*) subscriptions to the amount of 20s. or upwards. A president or vice-president subscribes not less than one guinea per annum, and undertakes "to serve the League faithfully and conscientiously, and to perform the work allotted to him or her to the best of his or her ability, and to use his or her best endeavours to promote and further the purposes and interests of the League." The order is only conferred for personal service rendered gratuitously in connection with the relief of sickness, suffering, poverty, or distress. The order may be worn

on all occasions, but does not confer any rank, dignity, or social precedence. Branches of the League may be formed in any part of the British Empire.

League of Pity.—(See NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN.)

League of the Friends of the Poor.—(See CHURCH ARMY.)

Leagues of Help.—(See GUILDS OF HELP.)

Libraries.—(See PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES.)

Licences.—The social worker often receives appeals to pay for licences for various purposes. In some cases he will do well, after due inquiry, to make a favourable response. A licence for a hawker, which means any person travelling with a horse or other beast of burden, costs 40s., is obtainable from the Inland Revenue, and renewable on March 31. But it is not needed by a hawker of vegetables, victuals, coals, or goods made by himself, nor by a seller in a public market. A pedlar, that is, one travelling on foot, needs a certificate costing 5s., and obtainable from the chief police officer of the district. The exemptions are the same as in the case of the hawker's licence, and, therefore, includes the mender of chairs and the seller of pin-cushions and knitted mats. Lavender, it has been judicially decided, is exempted from the Pedlars Act as being a "vegetable." A certificate is not required to sell goods from door to door for a charitable purpose. A certificate is tenable for one year from the date of issue. A licence is not required by a blind man for his dog. As to street traders' licences, see CHILD LABOUR.

Licences to Sell Intoxicating Liquors.—(See also DRUNKENNESS, LAW RELATING TO.) The whole law relating to the sale by retail of intoxicating liquors is contained in

the Consolidation Act passed in 1910. The licences for their manufacture are regulated by the Finance Act, and do not claim consideration here. The Act of 1910 has abolished some of the old terms in use, although it has made no material alteration in the law. The administration of the Act is in the hands of the licensing justices, who are required to meet within the first fourteen days of February in every year, except in the City of London. Intoxicating liquors are defined to include spirits, wine, beer, porter, cider, perry, and sweets, and any fermented, distilled or spirituous liquor which cannot be sold without an excise licence. The "ale-house" or "public-house" (*q.v.*) licence is a general licence authorising the sale of any kind of liquor for consumption either on or off the premises. An "on" licence, as the name suggests, is a licence to permit the sale of liquor for consumption on the premises, and the "off" licence, which only allows the purchase of liquor to be taken away from the premises. Among the latter are what are popularly called "grocers'" licences, which facilitate the purchase of intoxicating liquors with groceries and other household requirements from grocers' shops, and are generally considered to be open to serious abuse. One special class of licence, known as the ante 1869 licence, is exempt from the general provisions of the law. The licence applies to beerhouses, generally of a somewhat disreputable character, and is issued under the authority of an Act passed in that year. Licences are renewable annually, except some authorised by an Act in 1904, which may be given for seven years. Objections may be made before the licensing justices to the grant of a new licence on the ground that the circumstances of the district do not require it, or the conduct of the

licensee (see PUBLIC HOUSES). The religious bodies have organisations (see TEMPERANCE SOCIETIES) through which arrangements can be made for the expression of these views before the justices, who have an absolute discretion, except in the case of the ante 1869 licences, in granting or withholding the licences.

Life Assurance.—(See also THRIFT.) In order to prevent mere gambling speculations, the law will not enforce a policy of life assurance unless it can be shown that the person who has taken out the policy had an insurable interest in the life assured at the time when the policy was granted, *i.e.*, that he was liable to suffer some direct pecuniary loss as the result of the happening of the event insured against. Every person is presumed to have an insurable interest in his own life, and a married woman in the life of her husband. A creditor has an insurable interest in the life of his debtor, and a surety in that of the person for whose debts he may be held responsible. A son has an insurable interest in the life of a parent on whom he is dependent, but, except as stated below, he has no insurable interest when the parent is dependent upon him. A parent is now allowed to insure a child's life up to £6 if the child is under five years old, or up to £10 whilst under ten years in industrial and collecting societies (*i.e.*, weekly payment societies); and generally, when in the case of a parent, grandparent, grandchild, brother or sister there is a *bona fide* expectation that burial expenses may be incurred, an insurable interest will be assumed up to an amount reasonably necessary to cover these expenses. It is not necessary that the insurable interest should still exist at the time of death, nor that a third party to whom the policy has been properly assigned for value (see

below) should have an insurable interest.

Usually before a policy is granted a series of printed questions are put to the person desiring to effect the insurance. Any fraud or inaccuracy in answering these questions, or any failure to disclose information likely to affect the question of risk (*e.g.*, a misstatement of age, or the non-disclosure of some physical weakness), whether the assured deemed the information material or not, will suffice to render the policy voidable at the option of the other side at whatever stage the omission may be discovered.

The conditions under which the policy is granted, particularly as regards the payment of premiums, should be carefully studied, for failure to observe these conditions to the letter may cause the policy to be forfeited. Suicide or death at the hands of justice will, as a rule, render the policy void. Almost invariably a clause of the policy stipulates that disputes shall be settled by arbitration. When a policy has been void from the beginning, and there has been no fraud on the part of the assured, *e.g.*, owing to some innocent misunderstanding between the parties, as a general rule premiums are returnable.

A policy may be assigned from one person to another, but before the assignee will have any right to sue upon it, it is necessary that a written notice of the date and purport of the assignment should be given to the assurance company.

It is advisable, therefore, when a policy changes hands that the assured should state the fact on a properly stamped form, and should inform the insurance company in writing of the name of the person to whom he has assigned the policy and of his reasons for doing so (*e.g.*, that the policy has been given as a security for a loan).

ACCIDENT INSURANCE follows the same general rules as life insurance.

Lip Reading.—(See DEAF AND DUMB.)

Lithography.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Little Piecers. — (See CHILD LABOUR II.)

Living-in System.—(See SHOPS.)

Local Authorities (England and Wales) may be classified in two or three different ways. Thus, they may be said in one relation to be either (*a*) rating or (*b*) spending authorities. The rating authority levies rates, from which the spending authority obtains "contributions" by means of "precepts." One spending authority, however, may itself be contributory to another spending authority, to which, therefore, the rating authority is only indirectly contributory. The principal spending authorities are dealt with elsewhere under the headings COUNTY, BOROUGH, URBAN DISTRICT, RURAL DISTRICT, and PARISH COUNCILS; LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL, COMMON COUNCIL, METROPOLITAN BOROUGH COUNCILS; GUARDIANS, etc.; and see also POOR LAW AUTHORITIES, LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES. The rating authorities are as follows: In London—the Common Council and the Metropolitan borough councils; out of London—overseers (*q.v.*), (as to poor and some other rates), borough and other urban district councils (as to general district and highway rates), borough councils (as to borough rates when not included in the poor rates). All these are spending, as well as rating, authorities; but overseers only to a limited extent. Only the principal rates directly levied are here referred to. (See LOCAL RATES.)

Local Education Authorities.—These are in (1) London, both for elementary and higher education, the county council; (2) out of

London, (a) for elementary education, county councils, borough councils (where the population is over 10,000) and other urban district councils (where the population is over 20,000); (b) for higher education, county and county borough councils. In regard to higher education, the Acts assigning these duties require the local education authority to "consider the educational needs of their area and take such steps as seem to them desirable, after consultation with the Board of Education (*q.v.*) to supply or aid the supply of education, other than elementary and to promote the general co-ordination of all forms of education" (see EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES). All the powers and duties of the school boards and school attendance committees (see ATTENDANCE

AT SCHOOL) were transferred to the local education authority, so that they have the control of secular education in all public elementary schools (*q.v.*), which they must also maintain and keep efficient. In regard to non-provided schools, there are some slight restraints upon the power of the local education authority, which are the only vestige of authority remaining to the school managers (*q.v.*).

Local Finance.—In the space at disposal it is impossible to give more than the barest outline of the revenues and expenditure of the local authorities in England and Wales, or even to give this with such explanations and comment as might naturally be looked for in connection with figures of such magnitude and importance. Details must be looked for elsewhere.

Annual Revenues (1907-8)

	<i>London, Out of London</i>	
	£	£
Public rates	15,037,000	44,590,000
Grants (<i>q.v.</i>)	2,957,000	17,672,000
Receipts on account of tramways, light railways, and water, gas, and electricity supply ..	2,303,000	21,394,000
Other receipts	2,424,000	13,047,000
	£22,721,000	£96,703,000
	<u>£119,424,000</u>	

Annual Expenditure (1907-8)

	£	£
Education: Elementary	3,996,000	17,863,000
„ Higher	846,000	2,964,000
Highways, bridges, etc.	2,183,000	11,369,000
Poor relief (excluding lunatics in asylums) ..	3,263,000	8,701,000
Tramway, light railway, water, gas, and electricity supply undertakings	1,983,000	20,682,000
Police	1,938,000	4,453,000
Sewerage and sewage disposal	460,000	4,135,000
Harbours, docks, piers, etc.	—	4,182,000
Lunatics and lunatic asylums	632,000	2,997,000
Public lighting	404,000	1,805,000
Scavenging (other than road scavenging) ..	358,000	1,722,000

Annual Expenditure (1907-8)—(contd.)

Hospitals	£705,000	£1,272,000
Private street, and other private improvement works	119,000	1,284,000
Open spaces.. .. .	217,000	1,004,000
Other expenditure	5,111,000	12,079,000
	£22,215,000	£96,512,000
	£118,727,000	

In the above statement, the revenues and annual and other expenditure of the Metropolitan Water Board (*q.v.*) are not included (no part of the Water Board's income was derived from rates); and sums passing from one local authority to another are reckoned only once.

Amount of Rates Collected (1907-8). London, £15,049,000; out of London, £44,616,000; total, £59,665,000. This amount includes over £43,000,000 raised by poor rates or rates having the same or approximately the same incidence as poor rates, and £16,650,000 raised by general district and other such rates (see LOCAL RATES).

Borrowing Powers of Local Authorities (1907-8). The total borrowings by local authorities (including the Metropolitan Water Board) during the year amounted to over £21,000,000, of which nearly £5,770,000 was raised by London authorities. At the end of the year the total loan debt of local authorities was roughly £504,000,000. Some part of this debt was not charged on the rates. The other part, such as the debt incurred for water works, gas works, markets, and tramways, was primarily charged, in many cases, on the revenues of the undertakings for which the loans had been raised, and, therefore, would only constitute a charge on the rates in the event of such revenues proving insufficient

to meet the interest and the annual repayments or payments to sinking fund.

Financial Statistics. The official statistics of local authorities' receipts and expenditure, and of their borrowings, loan debt, sinking funds, etc., are to be found year by year in the local taxation returns of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*). Unfortunately the magnitude of the compilation makes the issue of these returns very late. The earlier parts of each yearly set, however, are not delayed for the issue of the final part. The contents of the several parts relate mainly to (1) Valuation (*q.v.*), and overseers (*q.v.*) and Poor Law authorities (*q.v.*) out of London; (2) county councils (*q.v.*); (3) rural district and parish councils (*q.v.*); (4) London authorities; (5) borough councils (*q.v.*) out of London; (6) other urban district councils (*q.v.*); (7) miscellaneous authorities; (8) summary. (See also the Annual Report of the Local Government Board.)

For the recommendations as to local taxation reform of the Local Taxation Commissioners, including their proposals in regard to poor relief, police, education, and main roads, and their suggestions generally with regard to the system of grants, see the Commissioners' final Report (Cd. 638, 1901).

Local Government Board. —

This department of the administration is the central authority in

matters pertaining to local government in England and Wales. It consists of a President associated with the Lord President of the Privy Council, the principal Secretaries of State, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer as *ex-officio* members. The President (a Cabinet minister) and one of the Board's secretaries sit in Parliament. Its constitution in 1871 was the occasion of combining in one department the chief direction both of sanitary and of Poor Law affairs. Its powers as to local government generally have been much extended since. The Board is assisted by inspectors—Poor Law, medical, and engineering—including several lady inspectors for Poor Law purposes. It also appoints the district auditors by whom the accounts of local authorities are audited, with the exceptions indicated elsewhere (see ACCOUNTS: AUDIT). Among the more important Acts which may be mentioned as giving an idea of the scope and variety of its functions are the following: the Poor Law Acts, the Public Health Acts (*q.v.*), the Acts relating to vaccination (*q.v.*), the registration of births (*q.v.*), deaths (see DEAD, CARE OF THE), and marriages, the sale of food and drugs, burials, education (*q.v.*), canal boats (see CANAL BOAT CHILDREN), housing and town planning (*q.v.*) motor-cars, unemployed workmen, old age pensions (*q.v.*), local government areas and authorities, etc. It has power, by means of provisional orders requiring confirmation by Parliament, to amend local Acts. It sanctions local loans, and determines the period for which they shall be borrowed, and regulates the issue of stock. It revises and confirms local bye-laws, etc., and has issued model bye-laws (see BYE LAWS). It is the administrative mentor of the local authorities (*q.v.*) and the ever-watchful guardian

of the country against the importation and the spread within our borders of infectious disease (*q.v.*). It collects statistics, and publishes, among other periodical returns, the local taxation returns (see LOCAL FINANCE), and statistics of pauperism. It maintains a government lymph establishment, and provides for the registration and inspection of alkali works. It renders great assistance in the criticism and the co-ordination with existing law of proposed legislation affecting itself or the local authorities. It prescribes forms of account, and provides for the audit of accounts (see ACCOUNTS: AUDIT). In certain matters it is or may be virtually a court of appeal, *e.g.*, in regard to old age pensions (see PENSIONS IN OLD AGE), in certain cases of default on the part of local authorities in the performance of duty; in numerous matters arising under the Housing, Town Planning, etc., Act, 1909; and in cases of appeal against decisions of district auditors as to allowances, disallowances, and surcharges in accounts. It administers the Metropolitan Common Poor Fund (*q.v.*). It is the channel through which large sums of money reach the local authorities as grants (*q.v.*). In Poor Law matters it has almost unlimited powers of control. In other matters more is left to the local authorities; but even here its functions are of the utmost value and importance. It has powers of compulsion in certain cases; but it may be said generally that, even as to matters in regard to which it has no power to impose its will, the great weight of the office is often a compelling and a salutary influence in local affairs.

Local Rates.—Liability to rating, in England and Wales, depends generally on "beneficial occupation." Occupiers are rateable, except where, under statutory

authority, the owners are. The basis of assessment is, for most rates, a valuation fixed by the valuation (*q.v.*) list; but there may, for some purposes, be another basis. The incidence of the principal rates, levied under normal conditions, is briefly as follows: poor rate, half rate on agricultural land, full rate on other property; general district rate, one-fourth on land, railways, etc.; full rate on other property. These are the two typical rates as

regards incidence. Other rates (where not actually included in these) approximate generally as to incidence to one or the other; but exceptions to the rule are numerous, as in the case of borough rates, which (when not included in the poor rate) may have the general incidence either of the poor rate, or of the general district rate, or may trim between. The total rates collected by rating authorities in one year (last return) were:—

<i>Rates.</i>	<i>London.</i>	<i>Out of London.</i>
With incidence generally of poor rate ..	(a) £15,049,000	(b) £27,965,000
General district and miscellaneous rates	—	16,651,000
	<u>£15,049,000</u>	<u>£44,616,000</u>

(a) gives an average rate in the pound of 6s. 9½d. and (b) an average rate of 3s. 7½d. Taking different classes of areas out of London, the average rates in the pound (for the same rates) would be: county boroughs, 4s.; other boroughs and urban districts, 3s. 3d.; rural districts, 3s. 8¾d. The variation between one area and another of the same class may be considerable. County rates and the greater part of the borough rates are not directly levied as such; they represent assessments upon entire parishes, and are actually levied upon the ratepayers in the parishes as poor rates (or, as regards the borough rates, usually as poor rates).

Local Taxation.—(See GRANTS and LOCAL FINANCE.)

Lock Cases.—(See also RESCUE WORK.) Every rescue worker should read a four-page leaflet by J. E. Ernest Lane, F.R.C.S., published by the Female Aid Society of Victoria House, Westminster.

Locksmiths.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Lodgers' Goods Protection.—(See LANDLORD AND TENANT.)

Lodging Houses.—(See COMMON LODGING HOUSES and MODEL LODGING HOUSES.)

London Borough Councils.—(See METROPOLITAN BOROUGH COUNCILS)

London County Council.—This body, like county councils (*q.v.*) out of London, is the administrative successor of the county justices within its area. It is also the successor of the Metropolitan Board of Works, which ceased to exist in 1889, and of the London School Board, superseded in 1904. The Local Government Act, 1888, severed parts of Middlesex, Kent, and Surrey from the old counties, and out of these formed a new "county of London" "for all non-administrative purposes," preserving as a separate county for judicial and other non-administrative purposes the old City of London, which was and is for these purposes a "county of itself." For administrative purposes, however, the County Council includes the City. This distinction between the "county" and the "administrative

county" of London should be borne in mind. The County Council consists of a chairman, aldermen, and councillors. The chairman is selected annually from within or without the Council; while in office he is a justice of the peace. The Council appoint a vice-chairman and a (paid) deputy-chairman. The vice-chairman is a member of the Council. The aldermen are co-opted from within or without the Council, and serve for six years. The councillors are directly elected for three years. The principal officers of the Council are the clerk, comptroller, engineer, architect, valuer, solicitor, medical officer of health (*q.v.*), statistical officer, etc. The powers and duties of the Council include matters connected with education, elementary and higher; reformatories and industrial schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS); schools for defective children; places of detention for juvenile offenders (*q.v.*); infant life protection (*q.v.*); midwives (*q.v.*); housing and town planning (*q.v.*); lodging houses; streets and buildings; bridges, tunnels, embankments, ferry; motor-cars; tramways; main drainage; floods prevention; offensive trades (*q.v.*); milk premises; diseases of animals (*q.v.*); inebriates (*q.v.*); employment of children (see CHILD LABOUR); shop hours and seats for assistants (see SHOPS); open spaces; coroners (see DEAD, CARE OF THE); cinematograph exhibitions (*q.v.*); fire brigade and means of escape from fire in factories (*q.v.*); theatres and music halls; explosives; employment agencies; weights and measures; electricity and gas-testing and meter-testing. It appoints fourteen members of the Metropolitan Water Board (*q.v.*) and makes loans to other local authorities (*q.v.*). The last return shows annual expenditure amounting to

£11,295,000, and expenditure on capital account amounting to £4,650,000, with an outstanding loan debt of £81,155,000. The expenditure mentioned includes the grant paid by the Council under the London (Equalisation of Rates (*q.v.*)) Act, 1896, and the indoor pauper grant, but does not include exchequer grants paid over to other local authorities. Its principal revenues are rates (including contributions to the equalisation fund) and grants. For further information, see the (annual) *London Statistics*, published by the Council.

London Girls' Club and Institute Union.—(See GIRLS' CLUBS.)

London Mendicity Society.—(See BEGGING.)

London Playing Fields Society.—(See also RECREATION.) The rapid extension of the Metropolis led to the constitution of the Society in 1890 by delegates from the various open space societies, cricket and football clubs, leagues and associations, university and public school settlements (*q.v.*) and missions, and other societies and institutions. The objects are to encourage and develop the playing of cricket, football, and other games by the clerks and working men and boys of London, in order to advance their physical and moral development. The Society ascertains, organises, and represents their requirements particularly in negotiating with public authorities in regard to the playing of games in the parks, commons, and other open spaces, and with the railway companies in regard to reductions of fares and facilities of travel. The Society also endeavours to increase the existing supply of public and private playing fields by acquiring land and letting pitches for the season to clubs which, though not able to pay the high rents necessarily required by persons letting the land

for profit, can yet afford a smaller payment. Thus the limited space available in the parks and public open spaces is left more free for the poorest players. The earlier years of the work of the Society were devoted to collecting information as to the extent and nature of the demand for grounds, and to obtaining further facilities and better regulations for games in the parks and commons. But the demand for grounds and the inadequacy of the supply owing to the extensive operations of the builders, has made it necessary for the Society to undertake the provision and management of playing fields of its own so far as possible with the funds at its disposal. Freeholds have been secured at Raynes Park (50 acres); Edgware (42 acres); Fairlop Park, near Ilford (30 acres); and Walthamstow (34 acres). The Society also has leasehold grounds at Notting Hill, Willesden, Earlsfield, Brockley, and Mottingham, besides maintaining thirty-four pitches in Epping Forest by permission of the Corporation of London. Altogether there is accommodation for about 6,500 cricketers at one time, besides a large number of tennis courts, both for men and women.

Loom Boys.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Lunatic Asylums.—Lunatics (*q.v.*) are provided for by asylums of several distinct types. For paupers there are the county asylums and special wards in some work-houses (*q.v.*). For the poor there are also hospitals supported by endowments and voluntary contributions, such as Bethlehem and St. Luke's, in London. These also provide separate accommodation for those who are able to pay something according to their means. The large and small private licensed asylums cater for those who can pay the whole cost of maintenance. No private house may take more than one lunatic without

being licensed. County councils (*q.v.*) and county borough councils must provide asylum accommodation for the poor, and may provide for private paying patients. Every such council appoints an asylums committee or visiting committee, to whom is entrusted the management of the asylum. The committee also controls, subject to the approval of the Home Secretary, the spending of a limited amount of money out of the county rate in support of the hospital. Each member of the committee is a visitor of the asylum. The committee draws up rules for the management of the asylum, but such rules must be approved by the Home Secretary.

In respect of his duties as to lunacy, the Home Secretary is advised by the Lunacy Commissioners. Three of these are legal, three medical, and two or more honorary. They draw up rules for asylums, and visit all institutions and private houses where lunatics are kept. All are visited once a year, and some six times a year. A report upon the work of the Commissioners is presented annually to Parliament. (See PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS.) Houses where only one patient is kept do not need to be licensed, but are visited yearly by the Commissioners.

Lunatic asylums are under the immediate management of a medical superintendent, who being frequently responsible for the good government of over 1,000 persons—patients and staff—needs to be an able organiser as well as a skilled physician and surgeon. He is assisted by a staff of nurses and attendants, and in large asylums by assistant medical officers. Straight jackets and other means of constraint are now seldom used, and a very large amount of freedom is allowed to most patients. The aim of treatment is, firstly, to cure any

physical defect or disease; and, secondly, to divert and rest the mind by occupation and amusement. Music, dancing, theatrical performances, games, indoor and outdoor are freely indulged in.

Lunatics.—(See also INEBRIETY, and ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) A lunatic is an insane person. Insanity is defined by Dr. Clouston as "such an alteration in any or all of the mental functions as makes a man unfit from this cause to do his work or manage his affairs, or mingle in the society of his fellow-men, or which makes him unsafe to himself or others, or to society, this alteration not being solely the result of fever," but of disorder of the brain.

The principal causes of insanity are inherited tendency, alcoholism, syphilis, and personal trouble, excitement or loss of health, these causes being stated in order of importance. Alcoholism in the parents may produce mental defect, epilepsy, and insanity in the offspring.

Lunatics are sent to asylums (1) because they are dangerous or a nuisance to other persons; (2) because institution treatment offers the best prospect of cure.

To avoid improper interference with individual liberty, strict provisions are made by law to prevent persons being unnecessarily confined. Before admission to an asylum the lunatic must be certified as such by two qualified medical practitioners, acting independently. A reception order must be made by a county court judge, a magistrate, a justice specially appointed, or else the lunatic must be examined by a master in lunacy. Any person may apply for an order to have any inmate of an asylum detained as a lunatic examined by two medical practitioners.

Lying-in Charities.—(See also

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.) Lying-in charities fall into two classes: (a) Those that provide attendance (midwife or student) for women in their own homes; and (b) those that offer institutional treatment. Some charities, e.g., the East End Mothers' Lying-in Home, provide both forms of help; others (e.g., the Royal Maternity Charity) have no wards. By far the larger proportion of assisted cases belong to class (a).

Admission to the benefits of these charities is obtained either through a subscriber's letter of recommendation, as in the case of the Royal Maternity Charity, or by direct application to the institution, as in the case of St. Thomas' Hospital.

In most parts of London there is no kind of assistance so easy to obtain and so liable to abuse as maternity relief, and none in which it is so important to maintain a high standard of administration. The social worker, even though she be not a subscriber, will find many opportunities in her personal relations with individual applicants and by making representations in regard to them to the charities of ensuring that this assistance is guided into the right channels and made as far as possible fruitful of good results.

In the cases that are suitable for help in their own homes, class (a), the following conditions should attach to such help:—

(1) It should only be given to respectable *married* women;

(2) The applicant should offer proof that she is not in a position to provide for the full cost of her confinement; and

(3) The home conditions and circumstances should be such as to ensure that mother and child will receive reasonable care after the infant's arrival.

With regard to (2), it is of the utmost importance that every possible inducement should be brought

to bear on individuals to make provision for this contingency. The applicant, if she cannot afford to pay the fee of a midwife (see MIDWIVES) or doctor, can often lay by sufficient money during the months of waiting to defray other necessary expenses (see MATERNITY CLUBS and SICK ROOM HELPS SOCIETY). The husband, whose existence is apt to be forgotten, should be seen, and in doubtful cases it may be necessary to insist on verifying his wages. Above all, it is essential that the social worker should get into touch with these cases at an early date.

With regard to (3), it is clear that cases of chronic destitution should be excluded. These should be referred to the Poor Law guardians, with a view to the woman's admission to the workhouse (*q.v.*) or infirmary (*q.v.*), and in order that the whole family may be dealt with. Help should be refused where the home is dirty and overcrowded, and where there is undue expenditure on drink. Roughly speaking, the weekly income in suitable cases ought not to exceed 25s., but consideration must be paid to the number of children in the family, and to special circumstances, such as the illness of the breadwinner, loss of work, and the like. It is important that full use should be made of the assistance of relations. In some cases supplementary help will be needed in the form of nourishments or clothing. This can often be obtained from the Maternity Charity; when the institution has no funds for the purpose, recourse must be had to the parochial relief committee (*q.v.*) or other local agency. The mother's greatest need is often that of education in the care of herself and her baby (see SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERS). The social worker will do well to get into close touch with these and other agencies, such as health

societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS), which are concerned with work of this kind.

With regard to class (*b*), institutional treatment should be reserved for respectable married women who for some special reason (*e.g.*, on medical grounds) cannot safely be confined at home. Generally, the same considerations will apply as under class (*a*). But there are certain hospitals and homes (*e.g.*, the York Road and Queen Charlotte's Lying-in Hospitals) which admit unmarried girls for their *first* confinement. These cases should only be recommended after very careful inquiry into the circumstances, and every effort should be made to compel the father to maintain the child (see BASTARDY). It is essential to place the girl under good influence for a lengthened period (see RESCUE WORK).

Machine-Minders.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Machinery.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH AND PRECAUTIONS IN; and FACTORY LEGISLATION.)

Machining.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Magdalen Institutions.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Magistrate.—(See ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.)

Maintenance Order.—(See BASTARDY.)

Majority Report.—(See POOR LAW REFORM.)

Mansion House Council on Health and Housing.—(See MANSION HOUSE COUNCIL ON THE DWELLINGS OF THE POOR.)

Mansion House Council on the Dwellings of the Poor (Offices: 17, Essex Street, Strand, W.C.).—The objects of this Council are defined as follows:

(1) To study all questions relating to housing (*q.v.*) and sanitation (see DRAINAGE) especially in London and its suburbs, to watch

Parliamentary action and to influence public opinion in connection with the same, and generally to act as a bureau of information in regard to such matters.

(2) To encourage and press for efficient sanitary administration on the part of the central and local authorities (see **SANITARY AUTHORITIES**), and to undertake inspection where expedient for testing the efficiency of such administration.

(3) To form, and assist the work of, sanitary aid committees in London and its suburbs and to affiliate to the Council when desired any other societies or committees working on similar lines within that area.

(4) To co-operate with bodies carrying on similar work in other places.

The Council was formed in 1883 with the primary object of improving the sanitary conditions of the poorer parts of London by rousing the local authorities to make a proper use of their legal powers. Sanitary aid committees, composed of voluntary workers, were formed in various districts, who made it their business to obtain information of insanitary conditions in their district, to hand on this information to the proper authorities, and if necessary, to bring pressure to bear on these until the necessary improvements were carried out. Before long paid inspectors (see **SANITARY INSPECTORS**) were appointed to assist the voluntary committees in this work which in many cases proved immediately effective in producing great improvements in the locality. But in some instances the local authority proved impervious to the representations of the committee or Council. In several such cases the Council applied to the London County Council (*q.v.*) to inquire into the matter with the invariable result that the complaints of the Council

were found to be fully justified, and the authorities compelled to carry out the requisite reforms. The result of such pressure combined with legislation has been an undoubted improvement in the standard of sanitary administration in London, but a recent report of the Council shows that there is still ample scope for the work of the sanitary aid committees, work which is for the most part welcomed nowadays by the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) of the district concerned.

The Council has also sought to improve the state of housing and public health by providing legislation to this effect. It took an active part in connection with the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, the Public Health (London) Act, 1891 (*q.v.*), and the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909. It has from time to time organised lectures on house sanitation (see **DRAINAGE**), healthy homes, infection and similar objects, and has published literature in connection with the housing problem.

During the past few years the work of the local committees has gradually been extended to deal with health problems—*e.g.*, infant mortality (*q.v.*), the prevention of consumption (*q.v.*), etc., as well as with housing; and various sanitary and health associations (*q.v.*), working on these lines have been affiliated to the Council with a view to co-ordinating and rendering more effective the work of all societies which aim at promoting public health in London. The Mansion House Council in the autumn of 1910 decided to amalgamate with the Central Council of the London Health Societies. The united societies will henceforth be known as the Mansion House Council for Health and Housing, which will appoint two standing committees, one to deal

with health and one with housing and town planning (*q.v.*).

Manual Training.—(See EDUCATIONAL HANDWORK ASSOCIATION.)

Manufacture of China and Earthenware.—(See LEAD POISONING.)

Marriage.—(See HUSBAND AND WIFE.)

Masonry.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Massage.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Master and Servant.—*General Definition.* A definition of the relationship existing between a master and his servant is "A servant is a person who voluntarily agrees, whether for wages or not, to subject himself at all times during the period of service to the lawful orders and directions of another in respect of certain work to be done. A master is the person who is legally entitled to give such orders and to have them obeyed."

The relationship may be entered into either :—

(1) *Expressly, i.e.,* a clear contract of service is entered into—no particular form is required, and the contract may be made either in writing or verbally except in certain instances, as for example where the contract *cannot* be performed within one year, when there must be some writing or memorandum.

(2) *Impliedly.* A contract of service must be inferred from the conduct of the parties, *e.g.,* a man performs work for another with that other's knowledge and tacit consent.

Necessary Conditions. Any person of full age is capable of entering into this contract. Consideration—that is to say, mutual benefit—to the master, the service of the servant; to the servant, money or other reward,—is necessary in order to enforce the contract.

Duties of Master and Servant towards one another while the Contract is subsisting. When once the contract is entered into, certain duties devolve upon both parties, varying according to law and usage :—

It may be generally stated that a master is bound to take the servant into his service in accordance with the contract, and there to keep him for the specified time, and to pay him the wages or salary agreed.

Furthermore a master must indemnify his servant for any expenses incurred or loss sustained by the servant in obeying his master's lawful orders, and must afford him reasonable and sufficient food and accommodation.

Unless specifically agreed, a master cannot stop his servant's wages in respect of goods lost or damaged by a servant's carelessness. The servant on his part is to obey his master's orders diligently and honestly and not to abuse his confidence, and to remain in his master's service for the agreed period.

Period of Service. In the absence of any period being agreed for the duration of the contract, the general presumption is that it is for the period of one year, and notice to terminate must be given on either side, six months before the year is ended, but in nearly every branch of hiring there exists a custom which outweighs this presumption, and on which such contracts are based, *e.g.,* domestic servants, where a month is the customary time of hiring.

Notice. To terminate the contract of service, the notice required usually depends upon custom, unless some definite period has been agreed upon by the parties. In the case of domestic servants one month's notice is usually required on either side, which may be given

at any time, in which case a servant is entitled to a proportionate amount of wages for the time he has served.

The contract, then, may be terminated by either party giving the agreed or customary notice, or by paying a month's wages in lieu of such notice.

It must not be inferred that because a servant's wages are paid weekly or quarterly that there is necessarily the period of notice required.

Dismissal without Notice. If a master, without justification, dismisses a servant without notice he must pay such servant a month's or other agreed period's wages from date of dismissal in addition to such wages as may be due up to date of dismissal, and the dismissed servant may apply to the County Court for redress. If a servant unjustifiably leaves without notice the master may obtain damages for breach of contract, and cannot be compelled to pay any wages due to the servant up to the date of departure.

Remedies for Servant Wrongfully Discharged. The following remedies are open to a servant who has been wrongfully discharged without notice :—

(1) He may regard the contract as still existing and sue his master on the broken contract.

(2) He may, if his wages are not paid up to the date of dismissal, treat the contract as at an end, and sue for wages for services already mentioned.

The former remedy is the more usual as, if successful, the servant can recover more than the mere wages due at the date of discharge.

To sustain this action, the servant must always hold himself ready and willing to continue in his master's service, and this should be brought to his master's notice—and it follows from this

that the servant cannot claim damages if he has obtained an equally good situation elsewhere.

Grounds of Dismissal. On the following grounds a servant may justifiably be discharged without notice :—

(1) Wilful disobedience to the lawful orders of his master.

(2) Gross moral misconduct of any kind.

(3) Negligence in his master's business, or being guilty of any conduct likely seriously to injure his master's business.

(4) Incompetence in his work (if such work was within his employment). It should be borne in mind that in all these cases the conduct of the servant must be so serious as to render his services of no practical use to his master, or such as to amount to setting his master at defiance.

(5) Permanent illness.

If a servant, during the existence of the contract, acquires any earnings or commissions, his master is entitled to them.

If a servant, rightfully discharged, refuses to quit the master's premises, the master may forcibly remove him, provided he does not use undue violence.

Wrongful Acts of Third Parties in relation to Master and Servant.

A master may recover damages against a third party who wrongfully deprives him of the services of his servant, and either party against a third person who maliciously causes a breach of the contract.

Loss of service may arise in the following ways :—

(1) Through personal injuries (provided they do not result in death) to the servant caused by a third person.

(2) By servant being enticed away during the continuance of the contract, provided that third person knew, or might have known,

of the existence of the contract of service.

(3) By seduction of the servant (see SEDUCTION).

Third Person's Liability. If a master lends a servant to some third person, whether gratuitously or for payment, the master is not then liable for such servant, the liability passing to the third person, with the service.

Character. A master is not legally bound to give a servant a character, and no action could be brought against a master for so refusing; but at the same time a master is under a moral duty to society to give his servant a character.

In consequence of this general duty to the public, it is necessary that a certain privilege should be attached to such a communication, and accordingly where such a communication is made in good faith by a master or other person who has reason for so making it to another master or other person interested, it is privileged, even although it may contain words which would generally be termed defamatory, whether such words be written or verbal (*e.g.*, if a verbal communication words spoken of the servant in the way of his business), and no action will lie, even although these words may be untrue, unless malice can be shown.

The privilege will extend, although the communication may be made voluntarily by the former master and not by request.

A master, if new facts come to his knowledge about the servant after he has given a character, may alter or add to this character, and it will still remain privileged.

It has been held that a master may be entitled to write across a written character belonging to his servant, the reason for his dismissal from his service.

Liabilities of Master giving a

False Character. If a master knowingly makes false representations concerning the character of a servant, and he to whom these false representations are made takes the servant into his service by reason of these representations, and is thereby damaged, the new master may bring an action against the master who gave the false character and recover damages—such false representations need not have been made through any ill-will towards the new master.

Mat-making. (See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Maternity Clubs. (See also LYING-IN CHARITIES, MATERNITY INSURANCE AND SICK ROOM HELPS SOCIETY.) The present work of Provident Maternity Clubs is founded on an older system of the same kind. In most parishes there exists an organisation which aims at collecting a sum of money varying from 4s. to 10s. from expectant mothers, with a view of making some provision for their confinements. A bonus, either in money or kind is generally added without reference to the particular circumstances of the case. While allowing that good has been done in this way through recognising the necessity of thrift (*q.v.*), it is now being urged that such a scheme is inadequate, and that a more thorough survey of the needs of each individual case is necessary in order to make full provision for the expenses incurred at a time of lying-in.

The chief difficulty of maternity work among the poor has been a want of forethought resulting in lack of thrift on the part of mothers, and an attempt to meet the situation at the last moment by indiscriminate assistance on the part of workers. A scheme may be recommended which promises greatly to relieve, if not entirely to obviate, this difficulty. Provident

Maternity Clubs of the kind sketched below have already been started in many districts of both town and country, and the growing interest expressed by letters and in personal interviews to the writer, who is herself secretary to one such club in a South London parish, leads to the hope that the work may in time be generally appreciated as a sensible relief to the difficulties which surround maternity in the homes of our poorer sisters.

The "Wakefield Babies' Welcome" deserves honourable mention as the first attempt of this kind. It exhorts mothers to make good provision for their confinements, and collects the weekly payments; it gives no bonus, and cases are carefully watched by the health visitor (*q.v.*). Appliances and clothing are lent to needy members and relief given after careful investigation.

The Provident Maternity Club differs, however, from such work as that of the Wakefield Babies' Welcome in that the club member is required to aim at providing all that will be required for her confinement by means of a weekly payment.

The organisation is very simple. A committee having been formed, a club secretary is appointed, and she is put in touch with the district visitor (see **DISTRICT VISITING**) and others engaged in social work in the neighbourhood. By means of the visitors, the work of the club is made known, and cases notified to the secretary who calls at the earliest opportunity on the expectant mother. The object of the visit must be to gain the confidence of the proposed member with a view to helping her to face out the situation for herself. The secretary will inquire with tact into the past and present circumstances of the family, giving incidentally such

hints as may be desirable on personal hygiene, the sanitary conditions necessary for health, and the desirability of securing the assistance of doctor and midwife (*q.v.*) in good time. She will take into consideration the present income with outgoing expenses deducted, the number of persons in the home, the probable conditions prevailing at the time of the confinement, the existing local institutions, such as provident dispensaries (*q.v.*) lying-in or general hospitals, and she will then assist the mother to make out such a scale of expenditure as will cover the case in a suitable manner. The necessary weekly payment is calculated, and arrangements made for its collection. The secretary should also be prepared to assist the mother by advice on suitable clothing for the baby, supplying paper patterns, etc. Members should join the club seven months (or at least six months) before the expected date of confinement. All provisions should be completed one month before that date.

The money (excepting that for baby clothes, etc.) cannot be withdrawn until the time of the confinement, or of the member's removal from the parish.

When the money is needed a post card should be sent to the secretary, who will call and arrange for the repayment.

Repayment can be made in one sum, or in weekly instalments.

Honorary Secretary. The club secretary should visit several times during the period before the confinement, and also during the first few months of the baby's existence, in order, if necessary, to put the health visitor in touch with the case. No money should be paid out until the secretary is convinced that the conditions for which it was laid out have been fulfilled.

No one can be admitted a full member who does not plan to lay by all that is needed for her case. It is, however, plainly impossible under existing economic conditions for all women to make such full provision; the secretary therefore is instructed to bring necessitous cases before her committee to see whether the club can assist, either by a free letter for one of the lying-in hospitals in the neighbourhood, or by other help, given on condition that the woman does her best to provide the remainder of the cost.

The relief of cases where chronic poverty prevails, or the circumstances are known to be entirely disreputable (see **RESCUE WORK**), is generally of necessity left to the Poor Law Guardians.

Maternity Homes. (See **RESCUE WORK**.)

Maternity Insurance.—No comprehensive scheme of maternity insurance has yet been started in this country, but some foreign schemes repay study. In Germany the compulsory insurance scheme includes women in factories who receive a sum equal to half their wages during the time of confinement—eight to ten weeks; in Italy also the compulsory mutual aid societies attached to factories include maternity insurance.

Of the private schemes abroad, the *Mutualité Maternelle*, Paris (30,000 members), and the *Still-und-Milchkasse* of Vienna are notable examples.

In England, so far, there are only maternity clubs (*q.v.*), purely local, generally in connection with religious organisations. They have done good work, but being often antiquated and unscientific in method, sometimes fail to encourage thrift (*q.v.*) or to relieve the right people. Clubs on better lines exist in connection with schools for mothers (*q.v.*), infants' consultations

(see **SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS**), the Nurses' Social Union, which publishes leaflets, and with health societies (see **SANITARY and HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS**) (the Babies' Welcome Club, Wakefield, is a good example), and in connection with hospitals (*q.v.*), *e.g.*, St. George's, St. Thomas', etc.

It would be well if a regular maternity insurance scheme could be formed in connection with friendly societies (*q.v.*), or with any general Government scheme of industrial and sick insurance which may be started, as no society for maternity insurance alone can ever be financially self-supporting.

The advantages of maternity insurance are these:—(1) The encouragement of forethought, thrift and self-reliance; (2) rest and extra nourishment for the mother when she most needs it; (3) the encouragement of breast-feeding; (4) skilled advice and nursing for mother and infant; (5) the money is paid by the parents at the time when it can best, and not least, be spared.

The following points are important: (a) Women should join on marriage, or as early as possible, anyhow not less than nine months before confinement; (b) money should not be withdrawable (except for materials for baby-clothes) until the actual time of confinement; (c) bonuses or prizes should only be given to those who cease all work (including domestic), and look after, and nurse their infants for at least three to four weeks or more; (d) benefits should be given partly in kind, *i.e.*, clothing, etc. (some being lent), food, skilled attendance, etc., and any extra relief must be given according to the special needs of the case and not in proportion to deposits. Necessary expenses vary in individual cases.

In any scheme, as in all insurance, the healthier, better off and more fortunate must pay for the less fortunate. The aim must be to arrive at the most scientific, and least pauperising scheme possible.

Maundy Money.—(See also KING'S ROYAL CHARITIES.) From a very early date there are records of holy men following the example of our Lord in washing the feet of his disciples on the day before Good Friday. In course of time it became customary to provide for the poor gifts of clothes, food and money as an accompaniment to this act of humility, which was, and still is, practised by the Pope and some European sovereigns. In England its performance can be traced back to early in the fourteenth century, and not long after it acquired a distinctive feature. Edward III, upon his jubilee, bestowed the same number of gifts as the years of his age. James II was the last sovereign who personally carried out the Maundy rite. The Lord High Almoner, now the Dean of Westminster, is responsible for all that appertains to the distribution of the Royal Maundy, which takes place during a service held in Westminster Abbey on the Thursday before Easter Day. The money, amounting to about £5 sterling, is given to as many persons of each sex as the King is years old and "who must at some previous time have been engaged in an occupation or business which has caused them to be the means of employment of others, and to pay rates and taxes." Candidates, unless suffering from some severe bodily disablement which totally incapacitates them from earning their living, must be over sixty years of age. All appeals for assistance must be made on the printed form prescribed by the Lord High Almoner, and obtainable from his

secretary, St. James's Palace, S.W. The forms are issued only on the written or personal application of the clergymen of the parish in which the candidate resides, or of some well-known person in society who would undertake personally to vouch for the accuracy of the statement made. Requisitions for forms should give the full names of the candidates. The forms are generally issued in the months of January and October in each year, and are returnable to the office of the Royal Almonry duly completed during the first eighteen days of the months of February and November.

Meals.—(See CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES and FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.)

Measles.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Mechanical Dentistry.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Mechanical Engineering.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Medical Aid.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.)

Medical Homes.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Medical Inspection of School Children—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES, CLEANSING OF, DISEASES OF, FEEDING OF and SPECTACLES FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN, "FOLLOWING UP," HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, SCHOOL CLINICS, and SCHOOL DOCTOR.) For several years an increasing amount of attention has been directed to the unsatisfactory physical condition of certain classes in the community, notably by the Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland), 1903, and the Inter-Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration, 1904. The Legislature determined that to grapple with the problem a beginning must be made with the children of the nation by an effort to

improve their environment and personal health, and that the first necessary and practical step was the medical inspection of school-children. The Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, enjoins (Sec. 13) that the powers and duties of a local education authority (*q.v.*) shall include "the duty to provide for the medical inspection of children and the power to make such arrangements as may be sanctioned by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) for attending to the health and physical condition of the children educated in public elementary schools. Provided that the local education authority may encourage and assist the establishment or continuance of voluntary agencies and associate with itself representatives of voluntary associations for the purpose. The Board of Education has decided that the inspection should take account of the following points: previous disease, general condition (height, weight, nutrition, cleanliness, clothing) throat, nose and articulation, eye disease, ear disease, defective teeth, mental capacity, present diseases. The Board has further decided that not less than three inspections during the school life of the child will be necessary. The first should be soon after admission to school, the second at the third year (say, seventh year of age) and the third about the sixth year (say, tenth year of age). A further inspection immediately before the child's departure into working life is desirable and may, with advantage in some areas, take the place of the third inspection. It was impossible that the full scheme should be in force the first year, and the code of 1908-9 merely required that provision should be made for the inspection of all children admitted since August 1st, 1908, and all children expected to leave school

before July 31, 1909, besides children obviously ailing and defective. During the first year about one and a half million children were inspected (the average attendance, 1907-8, being 5,291,449), and it is estimated that when the Act is in full operation about a third of all the children attending public elementary schools (*q.v.*) will be inspected yearly.

Medical Officer of Health.—Every sanitary authority under the Public Health Act, 1875 (*q.v.*), and every county council (*q.v.*) under the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, must appoint one or more medical officers of health. Every such officer appointed after 1892 to a district having a population of 50,000, besides being qualified in medicine, surgery, and midwifery, must hold a diploma in public health, or have been during three years prior to 1892 medical officer of health of a population of at least 20,000.

In London and other places half of the salary of health officers is repaid to sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) by the county council and charged to the exchequer contribution account. In such cases the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) must approve the terms of appointment and salary, and the officer cannot be dismissed or his office terminated without the Board's consent. This method of holding office is loosely called security of tenure, as opposed to the method common in the provinces of appointing officers for a limited period of one or more years. In the latter case the local authority may for any, or for no, reason, fail to renew the appointment, and it repeatedly occurs that a too energetic officer finds himself displaced by one more to the taste of those in power. But in 1910 the Local Government Board issued an order requiring sanitary authorities to give formal notice before an appointment

is terminated. The salary varies with the size of the district, but the usual salary of a whole time medical officer of health is from £500 to £1,000. Part time officers in the country are for the most part very inadequately paid, their salary often being a measure of the amount of work which the sanitary authority looks for from them.

The duties of medical officers of health are prescribed by the Local Government Board. They are briefly to inform himself as to all conditions affecting the health of his district, to advise the sanitary authority as to measures for improving public health, to make periodical and annual reports on the vital statistics, infectious diseases (*q.v.*), and all conditions of his district which affect health, and to direct the work of the sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*) (or inspectors of nuisances, as they are termed in the provinces). The medical officer of health is then an organising officer as regards the public health department, an advisory officer as regards the sanitary authority, and a statistical officer as regards reports. Many health officers are also consultants as to the diagnosis of infectious diseases, seeing cases of such disease by request of local medical practitioners who have had less experience in these cases. Though such work is strictly outside their duties it is of great importance, and becomes more essential in proportion as infectious diseases become less frequent. Copies of annual reports and of all special reports must be sent to the Local Government Board and to the county council, and outbreaks of dangerous epidemic disease must be reported to the same two bodies. He has special duties under the Housing, Food and Drugs, Inland Revenue, and other Acts of Parliament.

An ideal medical officer of health

does not confine himself to the official category of his duties. He seeks to lessen sickness and mortality in every available way, by constant study of the diseases which can most easily be controlled, by co-operating with all persons and associations working for social improvement and by making early use of all legal and administrative provisions to educate the public, to induce property owners to fulfil their obligations and generally to attack disease wherever it is most vulnerable. (See also Whitelegge and Newman's *Hygiene*, 1905.)

Medical Relief.—(See also RELIEVING OFFICER.) Medical relief is given by the Poor Law Guardians in two forms, outdoor and indoor (see INDOOR RELIEF and OUTDOOR RELIEF). An applicant for relief must first obtain an order from the relieving officer.

Conditions of Granting. Strictly the conditions essential to the granting of an order is that the applicant should be destitute. The person, however, who receives medical or surgical relief, for himself or his family, is not a pauper, in the sense that he does not lose his vote for Parliament, or county or district council; but he is unable to vote for the election of guardians (*q.v.*).

Formerly the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) encouraged guardians to be as strict in the granting of *outdoor medical relief* as in giving food or money, considering such relief as an open door to other forms of pauperism. The policy of the Board has changed in recent years, and guardians have been encouraged to grant medical aid to persons unable to pay for it. In a letter to the Holbeach Union (*Poor Law Annual*, 1907-8, p. 308) the Local Government Board wrote:—"The test of the guardians' duty in this matter is the destitution of the

patient, and this will not necessarily depend upon his being in actual receipt of Poor Law relief, but may consist in his being unable to obtain, at his own cost, the requisite medical attendance, nursing and accommodation."

Nevertheless the practice of many boards still is to make medical relief as difficult to obtain as food and money, and to require proof that the applicant has come to the end of his resources, and is practically starving. Whatever the policy of the local guardians, poor persons of independent character regard medical relief as degrading, and often neglect to apply until their recovery is hopeless.

District Medical Officers are appointed in every union, and have to attend and supply with medicines all the poor in their district on receipt of an order. In many large urban unions the guardians provide a dispensary and pay for necessary drugs and appliances: the medical officer attends daily at the dispensary. In other cases the salary, which is often quite inadequate, has to include the cost of medicine, so that the better the treatment of the sick the less the remuneration of the doctor.

Medical officers can recommend, but not order, extra nourishment (e.g., milk, beef tea). The relieving officer (*q.v.*) generally grants the nourishment temporarily until he obtains the board's order.

Guardians may appoint district nurses to nurse paupers at their own homes; but this power is seldom exercised. Many boards, however, contribute to voluntary nursing associations, in order that they may undertake the nursing of paupers.

Medical relief may be given on loan, whether it is indoor or outdoor; as regards outdoor relief, this is occasionally given, or offered,

and the threat of recovery often deters persons from accepting it. The amount ever recovered is negligible.

Indoor Medical Relief is now given with a much freer hand. Practically all are agreed that if a patient is ill enough to enter an institution it is advantageous that he should enjoy all the advantages of a modern hospital (see INFIRMARIES).

Meetings.—(See also OPEN-AIR MEETINGS.) Local authorities and other similar bodies generally meet in accordance with fixed rules and regulations. It is not proposed to deal with the conduct of their business but to state briefly the procedure in regard to a meeting of any body of persons who convene one for any purpose at any time. Provided that the purpose is lawful they may arrange whatever conditions they please, and anyone who attends the meeting does so by the permission of the conveners. If that permission is withdrawn during the proceedings that person becomes a trespasser after sufficient interval has been allowed for his withdrawal, and is then liable to be ejected by such force as may be reasonably necessary for the purpose. Further resistance constitutes a breach of the peace for which he may be given into custody. The first business is to elect a chairman, who thus exercises control over the meeting, and his directions should be treated with due respect. At the same time he must take care to allow the mind of the meeting to have free expression, for example, he cannot adjourn against the will of the meeting. The chairman is the proper person to request the withdrawal of anyone whose conduct is unsatisfactory, and to direct the succeeding steps in securing the enforcement of the direction. Having taken the chair, the chairman

may then cause any correspondence to be read as to apologies for absence, etc., and the minutes of the previous meeting, if any, are read and confirmed by the meeting. The chairman accordingly signs them. The chairman may then make a statement as to the object of the meeting, or may immediately proceed to business by calling upon the mover of the first resolution. When it has been duly moved and seconded discussion may be invited, and it rests upon the chairman to call upon the speakers unless the meeting especially resolves that a certain person be heard. A speaker cannot address the meeting more than once upon a motion unless there is a special rule to the contrary, but anyone may rise at any time to raise a point of order. Amendments to the resolution must be moved and seconded, and decided upon by the meeting in turn before the vote is given on the original motion. There are certain formal motions, viz., "the previous question," "that the meeting proceed to the next business," "adjournment" and the "closure," of which the first two are often used in order to get rid of a controversial subject. The chairman is judge whether the motion is reasonable, and also has a discretion as to the acceptance of a motion for the closure. A useful little book in reference to the conduct of all public meetings, whether convened by private individuals or public bodies, is *Blackwell's Law of Public Meetings*.

Membranous Croup.—(See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Mendicity.—(See BEGGING.)

Mentally Infirm, The.—(See ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Merchandise Marks Acts.—(See ADULTERATION and COMMERCIAL MORALITY.)

Merchant Service.—(See SEAMEN, TRAINING OF.)

Messenger Boys.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants ("Mabys").—(Central Office, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.)—(See also GIRLS' CLUBS.) This Association was founded in 1874 for the purpose of befriending young girls placed in domestic service from the various Metropolitan Poor Law schools, and other girls needing help. These girls are visited in their situations by ladies; they are provided with safe lodgings while out of a place; they are trained and taught their duties, cared for in sickness, and helped with clothing, etc.

The girls "befriended" are of two classes: (a) The "Central" girls—who come from large institutions and have no knowledge of the world, and of the temptations they will have to face. They are often homeless, or have only bad relations—and for them, the society supports ten lodging houses and several registries. (b) The "Local" girls, who come from very poor or bad homes, and have too little discipline, but perhaps too much knowledge of the world. The M.A.B.Y.S. helps also the still sadder cases of girls, who, through the fault or misfortune of parents, or through destitution, drift into the workhouse (*q.v.*).

It removes them as quickly as possible into one of its fifteen certified training homes. These are also used for girls who are unsuitable for Poor Law schools, and for others who have failed in service. When the girl leaves the home she is helped with outfit, and sent into a suitable situation. There she is regularly seen by a M.A.B.Y.S. visitor, who encourages her to save, to read, to attend some place of worship or Bible class, and gives

her the benefit of friendship and also some change and little pleasure. In all this, the permission of the girl's employer is asked, and her convenience consulted. At the same time, the M.A.B.Y.S. reminds mistresses who engage their girls of the importance of watching over them, and insists on being informed directly the girl leaves or intends to leave, her place. No M.A.B.Y.S. girl, however homeless, need therefore be friendless, and thousands have probably been thus saved from going downhill.

The M.A.B.Y.S., while working in most friendly collaboration with the Girls' Friendly Society (*q.v.*) differs from it in several respects. Its work is, of course, much smaller, being confined to London, and its workers are of all denominations. Touching, as it does, some of the saddest products of evil inheritance and environment, it cannot make the rule of character so stringent as does the G.F.S. But it is, nevertheless, as truly a preventive society, and deals with a class, urgently needing and often gladly accepting friendship and protection.

Metropolitan Asylums Board.—

An authority whose area embraces all London Poor Law unions. Its members are mainly elected by the boards of guardians of these unions, but other members are nominated by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*). The functions of the asylum board are partly Poor Law, and partly sanitary. It provides and maintains institutions for imbeciles (adults and children), a training ship for boys, and various other homes, schools, etc., for children (*e.g.*, sick and convalescent children and children suffering from ophthalmia or ringworm. It maintains hospitals for fever, small pox and diphtheria (see ISOLATION HOSPITALS),

and in connection with these hospitals it maintains an ambulance (*q.v.*) service. Patients in the hospitals are not technically paupers. The principal officers are a clerk, a treasurer and accountant, and a medical officer for general purposes, and the medical and other superintending officers of the several institutions. The annual expenditure of the Asylum Board (last return) was £1,100,000, of which £628,000 was for sanitary, and £472,000 for other matters. The loan debt of the authority amounted to £2,933,000. The Asylum Board's main source of revenue is the contributions which it receives from the London boards of guardians.

Metropolitan Borough Councils.

—(See also BOROUGH COUNCILS and COMMON COUNCIL). These authorities, twenty-eight in number, act collectively for the whole "county" of London (see LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL). One of the borough areas has the status of a city (Westminster). The council of each borough consists of a mayor, aldermen and councillors. The mayor and aldermen are elected by the council from within or without its own body, the former for one year, the latter for six years. The mayor while in office, is a justice of the peace. The councillors are directly elected for three years. The principal officers of a metropolitan borough council are the town clerk, treasurer, medical officer of health, (*q.v.*), surveyor, and sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*). The principal powers and duties of the councils may be grouped under the following headings: sewerage, drainage (*q.v.*), and cleansing; offensive trades (*q.v.*); smoke nuisance (see COAL SMOKE ABATEMENT SOCIETY); insanitary areas; unhealthy dwellings (see MUNICIPAL HOUSING); canal boats (see CANAL BOAT CHILDREN); housing; shop-hours (see SHOPS); unsound food (*q.v.*);

open spaces; baths and wash-houses (*q.v.*); public conveniences; burials, mortuaries, post-mortem rooms; libraries and museums (*q.v.*), art galleries, etc., appointment of school managers (*q.v.*) in non-provided schools; streets and bridges; wooden structures; sky signs; supply of electricity. The councils are the overseers (*q.v.*) for their respective areas, and as such have to do with the levy of rates, voters' lists, jury lists, and valuation (*q.v.*). They appoint distress committees (see UNEMPLOYMENT), and in some cases the assessment committees are appointed by them. The annual expenditure of the councils (last return) amounted to £15,000,000, and their outstanding loans to £12,500,000. The former sum, however, includes £11,000,000 raised and paid over as contributions to other local authorities. The principal sources of the revenue of the councils were, rates, £13,400,000; revenue of electricity undertakings, £590,000; and from baths and washhouses, £105,000. Some of the boroughs benefit from, others contribute to, the equalisation fund of London (see EQUALISATION OF RATES).

Metropolitan Common Poor Fund.

—The object of this Fund is to distribute over the whole metropolitan area on the basis of rateable value (see VALUATION), the heavy charge for certain items of poor rate expenditure in London. The Local Government Board (*q.v.*) levy half-yearly contributions from the unions, and credit them with the amount of the expenditure for which they are entitled to claim repayment. The balances in favour of the poorer unions are paid to the guardians (*q.v.*) out of the Fund. The expenditure dealt with includes relief of the poor, £1,538,000; registration of births, (*q.v.*), and deaths, £9,000; vaccination (*q.v.*), £24,000; maintenance

of small-pox, fever and diphtheria patients in the hospitals (see ISOLATION HOSPITALS) of the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*), and the ambulance (*q.v.*) service of that authority, £76,000. For this purpose, expenditure of the Asylum Board is dealt with as expenditure of the boards of guardians contributory to that Board.

Metropolitan Hospital Saturday Fund.—The Fund was founded in 1873 for the purpose of obtaining help for the Metropolitan hospitals and kindred institutions from those who were not reached by the operations of the Hospital Sunday Fund (*q.v.*). The annual income is obtained from seven thousand firms, etc., including practically every trade, friendly society (*q.v.*) and club, the employees of the London County Council (*q.v.*), the borough councils, the railway companies, the Metropolitan Water Board (*q.v.*), the General Post Office, the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich, the Royal Small Arms Factory, Enfield Lock, the Royal Victoria Yard, Deptford, the Port of London Authority, etc., and the members of the Metropolitan and City Police Force. The memorandum of association describes the objects of the Fund to be: (1) To make grants for the erection, maintenance or repair, or towards the general expenses of all or any of the hospitals (*q.v.*), dispensaries, convalescent homes (*q.v.*) or hospitals or other medical charities at any time existing within the metropolitan police district, and also to any convalescent homes or hospitals outside the metropolitan postal district. (2) To purchase or lease, erect and maintain one or more convalescent homes in Great Britain for the reception of convalescent patients ordinarily resident within the counties of Middlesex, Essex, Kent, Surrey and Hertford. (3) To acquire medical and surgical appliances

either by purchase, gift or otherwise, and to dispose thereof either gratuitously or at a price not exceeding the wholesale price for the time being of such medical and surgical appliances. (4) To give medical relief either gratuitously or not, to patients ordinarily residing within the counties of Middlesex, Essex, Kent, Surrey and Hertford. The Distribution Committee controls all matters connected with the distribution of grants and for that purpose makes such inquiries and asks for such information as it thinks desirable about the hospitals and institutions applying for a grant. The Ambulance Committee arranges, in co-operation with the St. John Ambulance Brigade (*q.v.*), for the first aid and nursing classes (see **AMBULANCE WORK**), and the removal of patients to and from hospitals. Letters of recommendation (see **HOSPITAL LETTERS**) for intending patients may be obtained through the chairman, treasurer, secretary, or any other duly authorised member of any local committee. But any officer or member, other than the secretary, shall report the receipt of any such letter to the secretary, in order that a register of all such letters applied to any local committee may be kept by the secretary of such local committee and submitted to such committee quarterly for inspection. The Fund makes no independent inquiries but acts upon the application of the local representative, and does not co-operate with the Hospital Sunday Fund (*q.v.*).

Metropolitan Hospital Sunday Fund.—The Fund was started in 1872 to provide increased funds for the various metropolitan hospitals and dispensaries by collections at places of religious worship on one Sunday in each year. The greater portion of its income is

contributed by the Church of England. Those hospitals and dispensaries only which are managed by a duly constituted committee and which produce their printed reports with income and expenditure accounts duly audited for the previous three years by a public accountant in accordance with the uniform system of accounts approved by the council, can participate in the Fund. The awards are primarily based on the average expenditure during that period after deducting (1) a sum equal to the income derived from endowments and realised property; (2) the amount received in legacies exceeding £100 each, unless such legacies have been necessarily spent to meet the current expenditure of the institution or outlay on repairs and improvements on buildings; (3) the amount of expenses of management; but in every case the merits and pecuniary needs of the institution concerned are fully inquired into and considered by the committee. The appointment of special officers to detect abuses of the out-patient department (see **HOSPITALS**) has been encouraged by the committee. No institution, to the benefits of which admission can only be gained by election from the general body of subscribers, can be eligible for grants from the Fund. (See **CHARITY VOTING REFORM ASSOCIATION**.) Any collections made on Hospital Sunday and sent direct to the hospital is deducted from the amount of the grant, and any amount raised by a hospital by pressing its claims upon the public in the week preceding Hospital Sunday is also taken into account in determining the award to such institution. Grants are also made to district nursing (*q.v.*) associations, and for the purchase of surgical appliances. Letters for hospitals, dispensaries and convalescent

homes (*q.v.*) are given to the clergy or ministers of contributing congregations or donors for the use of patients recommended by them so far as the grants entitle the Fund to nominate patients. The name, age, and address must be given of in-patients for chest hospitals and convalescent homes. No inquiries are made by the Fund as to the recipients of their letters. Reliance is placed entirely upon the application of the minister of religion. Nor does the Fund co-operate with the Hospital Saturday Fund (*q.v.*), the Surgical Aid Society, or any other organisation. Grants towards the purchase of surgical appliances are given to the clergy or ministers of any contributing congregation or donors for the benefit of patients recommended by them. As a rule, these grants are restricted to appliances worn on the person. The consent of the council must be obtained before the order is given for appliances.

Metropolitan Water Board.—This is a joint authority representing the whole administrative county of London (see LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL) and certain areas outside. Its annual expenditure (last return) amounted to £2,870,000; but up to the present no part of its expenditure has fallen upon the rates (other than water rates). The outstanding loan debt of the Water Board (last return) was over £48,000,000.

Midwives.—(See also HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, LYING-IN CHARITIES, MATERNITY CLUBS, QUEEN VICTORIA JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES, ROYAL BRITISH NURSING ASSOCIATION and SICK ROOM HELPS SOCIETY.) All midwives are now obliged, by an Act of Parliament passed in 1902, to be trained and certificated, and, if intending to practise independently of a doctor, to give notice to the county or

borough council of the locality in which they settle. This notice must also be given in any district other than her own in which a midwife takes a case, within a short time after having done so. More than half of all the births in England and Wales are attended solely by midwives, and in certain crowded manufacturing districts the proportion is higher still, amounting to 80 and even 90 per cent.; yet before the passing of this Act no training or qualification whatever was required from the midwives on whom this tremendous responsibility rested. In the great majority of cases they were entirely untrained, ignorant even of the elements of hygiene, the use of antiseptics, and of any but the most antiquated and haphazard methods of conducting their cases: and the annals of the Registrar-General, which since the middle of last century have afforded a reliable source of information, reveal a terrible tale of mortality, upwards of 4,000 mothers dying each year in childbirth. Of these deaths it is estimated that fully 3,000 should have been preventable, since the majority were caused by puerperal fever, that most terrible scourge of child-bearing, which can be practically abolished by modern antiseptic knowledge and yet has claimed this cruel yearly tale of victims, almost entirely from among the mothers of the working classes.

Of the death rate there is thus an accurate record (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS); of the sick rate there is none, but it needs little imagination to realise that if so many women lose their lives, a far greater number, who escape death, get up from their confinements ruined in health. All workers among the poor know how many women are prematurely aged from this cause, and drag on a life of hopeless pain and effort, which

makes the many duties of a working wife and mother an almost intolerable burden. The only means of preventing this wanton waste of life was to compel by legislation the due qualification of women undertaking midwifery. Yet the Act was not obtained without long effort. Public opinion was strangely ignorant and apathetic, and various strong vested interests fancied themselves threatened by any official recognition of what had been considered to be merely a more or less nondescript calling.

During a period of twelve years, no less than seven Bills were drafted and put forward, mainly at the instance of the Midwives Institute (Office, 12, Buckingham Street, Strand)—the first and for many years the only organised or representative body of Midwives,—aided by a few medical men, lawyers and members of Parliament. All these efforts were unsuccessful until in 1902 the late Mr. J. Heywood Johnstone, M.P., was able to pilot through Parliament a Bill which received the Royal Assent in the following year.

During the seven years between 1903-1910 its operation was gradual as the final provisions were postponed in the Act to the latter year, on account of the impracticability of making so great a change, without allowing due time for the organisation and training necessary to ensure a supply of certificated midwives to meet so vast a demand.

The Act created a Central Midwives Board consisting of nine persons, among them being representatives of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons and Physicians and the Midwives Institute and the County Councils Association. The duties of the Board include the framing of all rules for the

training and certification of midwives and regulations of their practice, and the appointment of teachers and regulations as to training institutions, the holding of examinations and the keeping of a roll in which the names of all certificated midwives are entered.

The local administration of the Act is in the hands of the county and borough councils, entitled Local Supervising Authorities, upon which devolves the duty of licensing all midwives who give notice of intention to practise, and their general supervision and inspection, temporary suspension from work in case of infection from puerperal fever, and the reporting to the Board cases of malpractice or serious breaking of the rules.

The Councils are empowered to delegate these duties to the district councils (*q.v.*), but in the great majority of cases they have been kept in the hands of the central authorities; and as when delegation has taken place the Act has, for the most part, been administered feebly and spasmodically or even entirely ignored, it is hoped that before long Parliament will revoke the power.

The Act is administered usually by the Sanitary Committee, or, as in London, by a special committee appointed for the purpose, consisting partly of members of the council, and partly of members from outside; and it is enacted that women are eligible for all such committees.

In respect to the midwives who were at work at the time of the passing of the Act, the following provision was made:—

All trained women holding the certificate of certain specified hospitals, or of the London Obstetrical Society, or other certificates acceptable to the Central Midwives Board, were admitted to the roll without further examination; and

in addition, all untrained midwives who at the date of passing of the Act had been for not less than a year in *bona fide* practice and could give evidence of good character, were admitted to the roll as certificated midwives, between the years 1903-1905; the entry in every case showing whether the holder of the certificate is entitled by examination or otherwise.

Thus until all these original untrained midwives cease work or die out, there will continue to be a number of legally certificated but untrained women upon the register; but it was impossible, in the interests of the patients or of the great number of women who had been earning their living by this means, to forbid it suddenly, and to deprive the mothers of the attendance upon which they had been accustomed to depend, of the shortcomings of which they were only too sadly unconscious.

In 1905 the enrolment of untrained women came to an end, but for five years longer they were still free to attend cases provided they made it absolutely clear that they were not midwives in the eye of the law. Since April, 1910, when the Act came into full operation, no woman is allowed to practise midwifery at all, except in case of emergency, unless she holds the certificate of the C.M.B.

Apprehension was felt in many quarters that the supply of qualified midwives would be sadly insufficient to meet the demand when this date arrived, and that great hardship would ensue; but that has not, on the whole, been the case: although in response to a few urgent appeals the Board in 1910 admitted a certain number of additional midwives of the "*bona fide*" type in order to meet an ascertained need in a few districts. It is greatly to be hoped that this procedure will not be repeated.

The minimum course of training is four months, and includes the personal conducting and nursing of not less than twenty cases, and the attendance on a course of lectures lasting over a period of not less than three months.

The examinations are held at intervals of two months, in London and at various large towns.

In order to qualify for a post under an organised maternity nursing association, it is almost essential to have some general training in addition: and unless a woman has some other means it is useless for her to take up midwifery alone as a livelihood, except in a large town where she is fairly assured of a sufficient practice. The poorer class of women in towns and villages who did the work in the past spent nothing on training, and had to conform to no standard of efficiency or cleanliness and combined midwifery with many another calling, like Sairey Gamp of old, greatly often to the detriment of the patient though with advantage to the pocket of the midwife.

Now, however, except in the case of women with some other means of support not incompatible with safe midwifery, employment by a district nursing (*q.v.*) association or kindred body will be the solution of the problem of furnishing a living wage for midwives among the poor, especially in remote and scattered districts: and to obtain such posts, a certain amount of general as well as midwifery training is essential.

There are upwards of a hundred training centres recognised by the C.M.B., of which the best known are Queen Charlotte's Lying-in Hospital, the British Lying-in Hospital, the City of London Lying-in Hospital, and the Plaistow Maternity Charity in London: and maternity hospitals in Birmingham, Bristol, Liverpool, Manchester,

Sheffield, as well as numerous smaller ones. A number of the larger and better equipped Poor Law hospitals are also recognised as training institutions, though, as a rule, they train only Poor Law nurses, and do not take pupils from outside. In addition to these institutions, training can be obtained privately under teachers and lecturers approved by the Board, who are empowered to sign the necessary certificates as to training before the candidate can enter for examination.

The offices of the Board are at Caxton House, Westminster: Secretary, E. W. Duncan, Esq.

The Association for Promoting the Training and Supply of Midwives (Dacre House, Dean Farrar Street, Westminster: Secretary, Miss Ford) was reorganised in 1903 to carry on the work indicated in its title, after having existed for ten years previously under a slightly different name, as a lay body working in co-operation with the Midwives Institute, to arouse public opinion, and especially to bring before Members of Parliament the urgent need for legislation.

The chief work of the Association, now that the Act has come fairly into working, is in giving assistance in training, by means of loans, part payment, and in specially deserving and suitable cases, free training to women who otherwise could not obtain it. The utmost care is taken in the selection of the pupils, most of whom are trained at a home in East Ham, maintained by the Association in co-operation with the Plaistow Maternity Charity. It is in a very large poor district, and in 1910, 859 births were attended by the midwives from the home, twenty-one of whom were pupils in training for the Association. One hundred and twenty-one midwives have already been

trained and are working in various parts of the country, both for associations and for independent practice, of whom the majority have joined the Association of Midwives instituted by the parent Association, which is affiliated with the Midwives Institute.

A badge is given by the Association on the completion of six months of satisfactory work in midwifery after the completion of training, consisting of a silver Maltese cross with the words "Mercy, Pity, Truth, Love."

The Rural Midwives Association was founded in 1903 by Mrs. Heywood Johnstone for the purpose of training women in midwifery to meet the requirements of the Act; and as the name implies, gives special attention to the needs of rural districts and the training of village women.

The office is at 47, Victoria Street, S.W.; Secretary, Mrs. Browne; and all midwives trained under its auspices are required to sign an agreement to work for three years as midwife, or cottage nurse (see VILLAGE NURSING), wherever they may be sent by the committee.

Milk Depôts.—(See also INFANT MORTALITY.) The unfortunate increase of artificial feeding of infants (*q.v.*), especially in urban areas, has led to the establishment of depôts for the supply of milk for infants. As temporary palliatives for an acknowledged evil these are good, but they are not to be considered substitutes for breast-feeding. They are also useful to supply milk for children when weaned.

The idea started in France (*gouttes de lait*) and America (milk laboratories). The first depôt opened in this country was at St. Helens (Lancashire), 1899. Since then many others have been started, most of them being municipal. They are usually combined

with Infants' Consultations. (See SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS.)

For the ideal milk depôt control should be obtained over the actual source (*i.e.*, farms), failing this the suppliers are required to follow stringent regulations as to the purity and cleanliness of the milk, the healthiness of the cows, etc.

The milk is usually sterilized at the depôt, and prepared (*i.e.*, "humanized" as far as possible). It is supplied to the mothers in a sufficient number of bottles for each day, in a wire basket, one feed in each bottle, the number and quantity being regulated according to age of the infant. These bottles are used for feeding by the addition of a rubber teat.

The whole system, apparatus, etc., are costly, and the depôts are invariably run at a loss, though those who can afford to do so pay for the milk—at Battersea, 1s. 6d. a week. Milk is only supplied to those mothers who bring a medical certificate as to the impossibility of breast-feeding.

With the increase of breast-feeding, and the improvement of the ordinary milk supply and the education of the mother in hygienic methods the need for these costly milk depôts will disappear. They must work for their own extinction.

Minimum Wage.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES.)

Minority Report.—(See POOR LAW REFORM.)

Mirror-making. — (See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Mission Houses.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Model Lodging Houses or Poor Man's Hotels, are buildings on the lines originated by Lord Rowton in 1892, and provided either by municipal or private enterprise to meet the needs of the many workmen who would otherwise live in

the very unsatisfactory common lodging houses (*q.v.*) of London. They vary somewhat in the degree of privacy as regards sleeping accommodation and also with respect to the extra common rooms, lavatories, and other appurtenances, but in the main they consist of a tall block or blocks, four to five stories high, containing 500 to 1,000 cubicles in addition to entrance hall, large common dining hall, kitchen, reading room, smoking room and lavatory, with other conveniences, such as grocery store, crockery store and lockers for parcels and clothes. Rowton Houses are six in number accommodating 5,162 persons, and the charge for accommodation is 3s. 6d. per week or 7d. per night, and food can be purchased at very low prices, cooked or uncooked. They pay a dividend of 5 per cent. Three municipal lodging houses, one being for women, have been provided by the London County Council (*q.v.*) and others have been established by the corporations of Aberdeen, Belfast, Croydon, Darwen, Glasgow (seven), Huddersfield, Lancaster, Leith, Manchester, Salford, Southampton, Blackburn, Bury, Paisley and Perth varying, however, from small and old buildings to the most modern type. The cost per head varies from £40 to £80, and averages about £60. The charges vary from 4d. to 6d. per night.

Money-lenders.—A money-lender is any "person whose business is that of money-lending or who advertises or announces, or holds himself out in any way as carrying on that business" (Money-lenders Act, 1900, Sec. 6). By the same Act all money-lenders are required to register themselves in accordance with the provisions contained therein, and if anyone carries on the business of a money-lender without being registered, he may be fined £100 for the first

offence, and in the case of a second offence he may also be imprisoned with or without hard labour. It should be remembered that a pawnbroker (*q.v.*) is not a money-lender for the purposes of this Act.

The results of the Act are very important. An unregistered money-lender cannot by action recover money which he has lent in the course of his business, and the borrower may recover any security he may have given an unregistered money-lender without repayment of the sum he has borrowed. A registered money-lender cannot recover his money unless it is lent by him in his registered name.

Dealings with money-lenders must at all times be entered into with caution, as the interest which they charge is sometimes excessive. When, however, a borrower finds that he is being asked for an excessive sum, he is entitled to the protection of Sec. 1 of the Money-lenders Act. This section provides that when a money-lender commences legal proceedings for the recovery of money lent, the court may inquire into the nature of the transaction, and if it be satisfied that the transaction is "harsh and unconscionable," it may so alter it as to order the borrower to pay such smaller sum as it may consider to be fairly due from him.

As to what interest is fair, is a question which must be decided on the merits of each particular case, such as the necessities of the borrower, the amount of the security given (if any), and the total gain to the money-lender from the whole transaction.

In all cases, however, where a would-be borrower contemplates dealings with money-lenders he should first seek advice from trustworthy people, and if a borrower finds himself in difficulties owing to a claim being made against him,

his wisest course is to consult a lawyer (see POOR MAN'S LAWYER).

Moral Imbeciles.—(See ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

Mothers.—(See LYING-IN CHARITIES, MATERNITY CLUBS, SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERS, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS.)

Mothers' Meetings.—The failure of Mothers' Meetings to exercise a very perceptible influence for good has been largely due to the prevalence of the idea that such meetings are to be regarded merely as social functions, and not primarily as means of conveying sound and practical instruction to the members. Yet, rightly considered, a Mothers' Meeting is undoubtedly one of the most valuable educative opportunities available for influencing working-class women. In nearly every case school attendance (see ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL) has ceased at the age of fourteen, with some of the older women considerably earlier, and the mental development, as far as it is assisted by books, has consequently been arrested at exactly that period. Very few women of the working classes possess either time or inclination to read such matter as might enlighten them on the best way of fulfilling the practical duties that fall to their share as mothers and home-makers. It is therefore obvious that the hour or two of leisure afforded by the weekly mothers' meeting provides the Social Worker with a convenient opportunity of imparting useful information. This should be conveyed in very simple language with such tact as shall render the acquisition of knowledge as little irksome as may be.

The ideal Mothers' Meeting should not be too large to be managed by a small number of

trained workers, possessing practical experience of the conditions under which the majority of these women live. It is to be hoped that the old idea that this branch of work does not require any special qualifications in the worker is now entirely exploded.

The room in which the Meeting is held should not be crowded in such a manner as to render the hygienic conditions bad, thus invalidating instruction on home ventilation, etc.

The workers should be careful to be both regular and punctual in their attendance, and their one aim, as above indicated, should be the careful and systematic instruction of the members. No meeting has fulfilled its object unless some definite lesson has been enforced with a view to its practical application in the immediate future.

Thrift (*q.v.*) should always form a solid basis of teaching, and can be practically applied by means of receiving deposits at the Meeting for Provident, Coal and Clothing Clubs, Penny Bank, etc. (see CLOTHING, COAL and BLANKET CLUBS). This usually forms the first item on the afternoon's programme, and it is well to have a strictly limited time for such transactions. The workers should then proceed to the next item, which, it is suggested, should be a simple instruction lasting about a quarter of an hour, either read or given orally (preferably the latter), on such subjects as Personal and Home Hygiene, Care of Infants and Invalids, Prevention of Diseases, etc. (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION). Discussion may then be invited, and by this means the worker will often gain much useful information. The distribution of plain cookery recipes—and simple paper patterns of clothing will often be greatly appreciated. In this connection it may not be

generally known that the London County Council (*q.v.*), on application, supply lecturers for a course of lectures on suitable subjects for this class of meeting (see also NATIONAL HEALTH SOCIETY), but where possible it seems most advisable that a regular weekly instruction be given by one of the workers themselves.

After the instruction (if time permits) a suitable tale may be read, the register of attendance should be taken, and the meeting concluded by one of the local clergy, who in most cases is willing to undertake the task of saying a few words of exhortation and prayer. The dispersal of the members affords an opportunity for the workers to mingle in a friendly manner among the women, exchanging a few words of conversation, inquiring after absentees, promising to visit the sick, etc.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the extreme importance of visiting members in their homes, not only in cases of sickness and bereavement, the arrival of new babies, etc., but as far as possible, also under normal circumstances.

The personal sympathy thus acquired will assuredly influence the usefulness of the teaching given at the meeting, for women are always quick to realise when help is being given from within the circle of their difficulties and not from without. Given a worker possessed of sympathy, knowledge and tact, there need be no limit to the influence exercised upon the home life, and through that on the life of the State by the humble medium of a Mother's Meeting.

Motor Construction.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Mumps.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES.)

Municipal Dwellings.—(See also ARTISANS' DWELLINGS, BUILDING BYE-LAWS, MODEL LODGING

HOUSES, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, TOWN PLANNING and WORKMEN'S NATIONAL HOUSING COUNCIL.) Part III is the most important part of the Housing Act (*q.v.*) because it enables local authorities (*q.v.*) to carry out a scheme to build houses for the working classes. There is no provision limiting the power of the local authority; no certificate or other formal proof of deficient house accommodation is requisite; no insanitary property need be closed or demolished. The local authority can decide to build at any time and for any reason which may seem good to it, provided, as in all other municipal work, that the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) will sanction any necessary loans.

Land can be purchased compulsorily if necessary, as provided in Section 2 of the Act of 1909 and the Lands Clauses Consolidation Act, 1845, and no lease, settlement, entail, or other private arrangement can debar a local authority from acquiring it.

By Sec. 7 of the Housing Act of 1900, land can be acquired for the purposes of this Act either inside or outside the district. The price is to be the fair "market value," with no allowance for compulsory purchase (Schedule I (3), Act of 1909). The value has to be determined in case of dispute by a single arbitrator appointed by the Local Government Board.

Land acquired under Part III may be either—

(1) Leased to companies or builders or working men for the erection thereon of workmen's dwellings (Sec. 5, Act of 1900); or,

(2) The council may itself undertake and carry out—

(a) The erection of lodging houses, block dwellings (*q.v.*), tenement houses, cottages (Secs. 53 and 59), and shops for the benefit of the tenants (Sec. 11, Act of 1903).

(b) The purchase and improvement or reconstruction of existing lodging houses, dwellings, or cottages (Sec. 58).

(c) The purchase or exchange of land for the purpose of encouraging such construction, improvement, or reconstruction (Secs. 56, 57 and 60), and the laying out or construction of public streets or roads (Sec. 6, Act of 1909).

(d) The provision of a garden, not more than an acre in extent (Sec. 53 and Sec. 50, Act of 1909).

(e) Fitting up, furnishing, and supplying the dwellings with all requisite fittings, furniture, and conveniences (Sec. 59).

(f) Making any necessary bye-laws and regulations (Secs. 61 and 62).

(g) Selling the houses if desirable and necessary after a period of seven years (Sec. 64).

The conditions as to loans obtained by a local authority are as follows:—

(1) The London County Council (*q.v.*) may with the assent of the Treasury, create consolidated stock, and provide for repayment within 80 years;

(2) London borough councils may, if the County Council think fit, borrow from the County Council or from the Public Works Loans Commissioners;

(3) Urban district councils (*q.v.*) and town councils may either borrow from the Public Works Loan Commissioners or issue stock or borrow on security of the rates, subject to the following conditions:

1. The consent of the Local Government Board must be obtained.

2. The period of repayment of the loan must not exceed 80 years.

3. Money so borrowed is no longer to be reckoned as part of the debt of the local authority for the purposes of the limitation on borrowing under Sec. 234 (2) (3)

of the Public Health Act (*q.v.*), 1875.

Under the Act of 1909, the Public Works Loans Commissioners may lend up to 80 years, at a rate which is fixed at present by Treasury minute at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and it is provided that the interest on loans for long periods shall not be greater than for short periods (Sec. 3).

County Councils (*q.v.*) may lend to societies of public utility (Sec. 72, Act of 1909) who may also borrow direct from the Public Works Loans Commissioners (Sec. 4, Act of 1909).

The workmen's dwellings built by local authorities may be divided into two groups:—

1. Those provided on or near the area dealt with by one of the foregoing improvement schemes to house a part of the displaced population. The money required in such cases has been generally included in the loans before mentioned, but in some cases the dwellings have been built by adopting Part III.

2. Those provided under Part III of the Act of 1890 on new sites acquired for the express purpose, and mainly with a view to increase the general accommodation of districts where there has not been a sufficient supply of healthy houses.

The dwellings erected have been of five types, as follows:—

1. Common lodging houses (*q.v.*), with either bunks or cubicles (see MODEL LODGING HOUSES).

2. Block dwellings (*q.v.*), four or five storeys high.

3. Tenement houses of three storeys.

4. Cottage flats in two storey self-contained dwellings.

5. Cottages of various sizes self-contained, with gardens.

Municipal Housing.—(See also BLOCK DWELLINGS, BUILDING BYE-LAWS, CLOSING ORDERS, HOUSING ACTS, NATIONAL HOUSING AND

TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, TOWN PLANNING and WORKMEN'S NATIONAL HOUSING COUNCIL.) The work done by local authorities with regard to the housing of the working classes has been of a three-fold nature.

- (1) They have taken action under the Public Health Acts (*q.v.*) to obtain abatement of nuisances (*q.v.*), to stop overcrowding (*q.v.*), to insist upon existing dwelling-houses being made healthy, and to enforce the bye-laws which secure proper construction and sanitation for new dwellings, and also for regulating common lodging houses (*q.v.*), and houses let in lodgings.

- (2) They have taken action under Part II of the Housing or the Working Classes Act, 1890, to compel the renovation or demolition of single houses, obstructive buildings, or small groups of houses which are, or cause others to be, unfit for human habitation (see SMALL SLUMS and UNHEALTHY HOUSES) and under the Artisans' Dwellings (*q.v.*) Acts and Part I of the Act of 1890, they have condemned and reconstructed, after purchase, large insanitary areas containing a number of such houses.

- (3) They have taken action to a limited extent under Parts I and II of the same Act, together with local improvement Acts, and to a greater extent under Part III of the Act of 1890, the Small Dwellings Acquisition Act, 1899, and the Housing of the Working Classes (Amendment) Acts, 1900 and 1903, to provide or encourage the provision of new, healthy housing accommodation in the form of model lodging houses (*q.v.*), block buildings, tenement houses, flats and cottages.

In the following lines, unless otherwise stated, the numbers of the sections refer to the principal Act of 1890.

Slums or Unhealthy Areas. Part

It provides for the clearing of large unhealthy areas (in urban districts only) (Sec. 3), and the execution of an improvement scheme for the district dealt with.

The authorities empowered to take action under it are the London County Council (*q.v.*) and all urban district councils (*q.v.*) or town councils (Schedule I).

It is the duty of the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) when he sees proper cause, or when two or more justices or twelve or more ratepayers in his district complain of any unhealthy area therein, to inspect such area, and make an official report on it in writing to the local authority (Secs. 5 and 79).

If the medical officer of health represents the area as not unhealthy twelve or more ratepayers may appeal to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), who, upon security for costs being given, must appoint a legally qualified medical practitioner to report on such area, and the local authority must act on this report (Secs. 8 and 16).

Where an area is thus officially represented to be unhealthy the local authority, if possessed of sufficient resources, must make an improvement scheme. The improvement scheme must be accompanied by maps, particulars, and estimates. It need not be confined to the exact limits of the unhealthy area, but may include lands which the local authority considers necessary to the efficiency of the scheme, or for the purpose of providing accommodation for displaced members of the working classes (Secs. 6 and 11). In default of the local authority making a scheme it may be made by the Local Government Board and enforced by *mandamus*.

It must be advertised, and the Local Government Board or other confirming authority must hold

a local inquiry, and may then make a Provisional Order confirming the scheme (Secs. 7 and 8).

The local authority may pull down the buildings, clear out the area, and make or widen any necessary streets upon the lands dealt with, after compensating the owners and others concerned (Sec. 12).

Re-housing. Accommodation must be provided as follows:—

(a) In London, either for the whole or not less than half of the population displaced, to the satisfaction of the Home Secretary, unless it can be shown that within the immediate vicinity the required accommodation has been or is to be otherwise provided;

(b) In any other urban district such accommodation (if any) as determined by the Local Government Board.

The whole question of re-housing under other Acts is regulated by the schedule to the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1903, which contemplates the provision of new dwellings, in some cases before demolishing the old ones.

National Anti-Gambling League.

—(See also BETTING.) This Society began work in 1890. Its head office is 13, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W., and amongst the survivors of those connected with it through out its career, Lord Aberdeen, and Mr. Lyttelton, the present Headmaster of Eton, are prominent. The reputation of the League was greatly enhanced by the successful prosecution of the notorious *Sporting Luck* betting coupons, and the approval of its action expressed by judges of the High Court. In 1906 the Street Betting Act was passed, many strenuous but abortive attempts to carry this legislation having through several years been made by the League. Its success in procuring the appointment of a Select Committee of the House of

Lords in 1901 resulted in a useful report, and although Lord Davey's Bill was rejected in 1903, the pressure of public opinion in support of the League's efforts continued to be very strong with regard to street betting (*q.v.*), and a more complete measure was enacted after a delay of four years. The report alluded to was considerably influenced by the evidence from the *Bulletin*, the half-yearly journal published by the Society, the lists in its columns, taken from proceedings in the courts of law, of suicides, embezzlements, and bankruptcies revealing the terrible social condition of the country from the ravages of professional betting. The Society's revenue, which was not more than £100 at its birth, rose to between £1,100 and £1,200 in 1895, when it arraigned the Jockey Club at Newmarket, and after several years of less prominent work and smaller means, it again increased to over £1,600 upon its organisation being joined by an important body at York, chiefly supported by the Society of Friends, which was working upon much the same lines with Mr. J. M. Hogge, now the League's Hon. Organising Secretary, as its principal representative. The regular exposition of the evils of betting and gambling, throughout the period mentioned, in the carefully considered pages of the *Bulletin* is probably the greatest service which the Society has rendered. It avoids finding fault with any kind of sport, as such, and confines its operations to exposing and attacking professional betting and gambling. The enactment of its "Gambling Advertisements Bill," which has now for a long time been pressed upon the notice of legislators, while particularly framed against incitements to gaming, would deal a fatal blow at professional betting whether upon horse-racing, football, or other sports, and

so do away with nine-tenths of the gambling in this country.

National Anti-Sweating League.

—As the result of a National Conference of Labour Representatives, held in the Guildhall, London, in October, 1906, the National Anti-Sweating League was constituted to translate into practical politics their resolution affirming the principle of the minimum wage (see SWEATED INDUSTRIES EXHIBITION and TRADE BOARDS). It is known that, although the League no longer has any need to attempt to secure sympathy with its proposals, the formation of the Trade Boards has given it definite duties of organisation to undertake. In the first place, the League has been endeavouring to see that the Boards formed should be of a satisfactory character; secondly, to organise the workers so that the Boards may not fail through their apathy; and, thirdly, to collect information which will be of value and assistance when the question arises of adding to the schedule of trades now in the Act. The Secretary of the League is Mr. J. J. Mallon, and the offices are at 34, Mecklenbergh Square, W.C.

National Association for the Employment of Reserved and Discharged Soldiers.—The objects of the Association, established in the same year as the Soldiers and Sailors Help Society (*q.v.*), are to establish throughout the United Kingdom agencies where soldiers of good character, who have been transferred to the Reserve or discharged from the Army, and are desirous of obtaining employment, may learn what situations are available, and where the employers of labour may obtain the services of strong, active, and reliable men, trained to habits of punctuality, steadiness, and obedience. The intention is not to form a permanent registration office for men who have already obtained any

civil employment through the Association, especially since the State has established labour exchanges (see UNEMPLOYMENT), nor is the service of the Association available for those who cannot account for themselves satisfactorily since leaving the Colours. Branches and sub-branches are established in the chief commercial and industrial centres throughout the United Kingdom. The local branches work in accordance with rules laid down by the head office and in concert with the military authorities of their respective districts. The central and local branches notify each other of men excluded from the benefits of the Association. The general rules lay down that no man can be registered unless his record in the Army is at least "good." A man who has obtained regular employment in civil life, and has been dismissed from, or has without due cause resigned his situation, or has failed to take up his employment when engaged, is not entitled to be assisted by the Association. The names of men (a) who have declined all suitable work offered to them during three months from date of registration; (b) for whom it has been found impossible to obtain any permanent employment during a period of six months from date of registration, may be removed from the books of the Association. At present, men, after registering on the books of the Association, are recommended to register also at the labour exchanges. (See also COMMISSIONAIRES, CORPS OF.)

National Association for the Feeble minded.—The National Association for the Feeble-minded was founded in 1895. Its chief objects are: (1) The foundation of voluntary homes and schools for the feeble-minded, to prevent their increasing the numbers of vagrants (*q.v.*), paupers, and criminals; (2)

the organisation of voluntary aid for the feeble-minded; (3) propagandist and legislative efforts in aid of this class. (For definition of the feeble-minded, see ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) In 1895 the feeble-minded were regarded as a new social discovery. The general public were profoundly ignorant of the problem; even where recognised, the question was usually treated with contemptuous neglect. The only Governmental recognition of their existence was found in a reference to the feeble-minded in the Royal Commission on the Blind, Deaf, and Dumb. Five homes existed for girls, and these were at once affiliated to the National Association for the Feeble-minded. Though the training of the feeble-minded was a first object, the question of permanent care forced itself upon the notice of the Association, and was urged at one of its first meetings (see AFTER-CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN). A home for boys was founded by the Association in 1896, and a home for the permanent care of feeble-minded unmarried mothers and their infants in 1902. Frequent conferences with boards of guardians, education authorities, and charitable bodies were held, and the country quickly became roused to the importance of proper attention to this social malady, which, as investigations went on, proved to be more widespread and of far more serious nature than at first conceived. As public opinion became more enlightened, legislative action was taken: (1) The Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1899, was passed, giving permissive, though unfortunately, not compulsory, powers (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT) to education authorities to open schools for the feeble-minded; (2) in 1905 the Royal Commission on

the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*) was appointed. Training homes were opened for the feeble-minded, and, later, homes for permanent care; and, in 1909, the Association founded a farm colony for the permanent care and control of the feeble-minded of both sexes, which, besides offering greater facilities for the classification of its inmates, and variety of occupation, secures many economical advantages arising from the proximity of the homes and the centralisation of their management (see HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED). The increase in the numbers of children attending special schools (*q.v.*) gave rise to a fresh development to secure as much as possible of the continuous control needed by the feeble-minded from earliest to latest years. After-care (*q.v.*) was established for scholars leaving special schools: (1) To advise and befriend them; (2) To record their history. After-care centres have now been started in connection with almost all important special school centres throughout England. Although in some cases this work leaves much to be desired, in most, the well-kept records prove an important means of estimating the actual worth of the education now given to fit such children for after life (1) under custodial care, (2) in the ordinary industrial world. By these statistics a fairly accurate forecast of the average history of feeble-minded children yearly leaving schools may be secured. The records do not offer an exhilarating outlook, and chiefly point to the necessity for securing a more extensive provision for permanent care. The social problems which press on the National Association for solution may thus be roughly summarized: It is estimated that about 77 per cent. of the elementary school population are feeble-minded; the

feeble-minded are also to be found in small numbers in almost every industrial school and reformatory (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS); the histories of the adults show them to be associated with almost every type of social wastrel known; for example, amongst prisoners (*q.v.*), about one in every ten is feeble-minded; many of the worst recidivists are feeble-minded; amongst inmates of workhouses (*q.v.*), the feeble-minded average from about 12.7 to 18.75 per cent.; amongst the inmates of Magdalen and rescue homes (see RESCUE WORK), at least one-half appear to be feeble-minded; in the inebriate (*q.v.*) homes the feeble-minded constitute about two-thirds of the inmates (see INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES). Thus we find everywhere that the feeble-minded are treated not on account of their specific disease, but only on account of social defects occasioned by that disease. Costly and inappropriate treatment is meted out to them, and they are let go once more into the world, as incapable of battling with its difficulties and temptations as before. Homes, therefore, have been founded by the National Association, not only to provide suitable treatment for the feeble-minded, but to relieve other charities from bearing the costly burden of dealing with these chronic failures. In segregating the feeble-minded, Society is also relieved from the threatened increase through heredity of its degenerate population (see EUGENICS). The Association has now twenty-seven affiliated homes, and a farm colony of 171 acres (Princess Christian's Farm Colony, Hildenborough, Kent), with four homes, two for men and boys and two for girls and women, to which more homes will be added as means permit. Here dairy work, poultry and pig-keeping, and gardening form a

means of employing the colonists in outdoor work, which is found to be remarkable in its beneficial results upon the feeble-minded. Laundry work, basket making, boot work, and other industries also help to transform the wastrel into an industrial worker of more or less profit to Society. The National Association somewhat differs from other societies dealing with home care, in that all its homes are kept small, in order that the individuality of the inmates may be preserved, and the evils of the barrack institution may be avoided. Annual conferences are held by the Association in different centres throughout England. Lectures are given and literature distributed. Full information may be obtained from the Secretary, Denison House, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road. In the new legislation suggested by the Royal Commission on the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*), it is proposed to preserve voluntary institutions. As many asylums (founded for idiots) now receive the feeble-minded, and as other voluntary institutions for this class also exist, an immense saving to the State will be thereby effected. Where voluntary management of homes is preserved, quite apart from any State or rate-aided government, it proves very much cheaper, and is an economy to the ratepayers concerned. Boards of guardians and education authorities are already empowered to pay for cases in voluntary homes, and avail themselves of this, so that the homes are always kept full. In boldly facing this gigantic problem, voluntary effort has pioneered the way, and shows the method by which this social evil, which forms one of the most difficult problems now existing, may be solved.

National Association for the Prevention of Consumption.—(See PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION.)

National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution.—(See POOR LAW REFORM.)

National Federation of Women Workers.—(See WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE.)

National Health Society (53, Berners Street, W.).—(See also ASSOCIATION OF HEALTH WORKERS.) This Society exists to diffuse a knowledge of the laws of health in every possible way amongst all classes of society. With this end in view the Society adopts many different methods of carrying out its work. Courses of lectures, varying according to the needs of those to whom they are given, are organised. The most important of these are the lectures through which training is given for those anxious to gain the Sanitary Inspectors' Examination Board certificate and the diploma offered by the Society. Other courses train workers who desire to become teachers of the laws of health and sanitary subjects under county council schemes of technical education. Similarly, lectures are arranged for training factory and sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*), health lecturers, and hospital nurses (*q.v.*). Simple training is also provided by means of lectures in private houses on personal and domestic hygiene, home nursing, first aid, and the like. The Society has also organised a system of "Homely Talks," which are given at mothers' meetings (*q.v.*), G.F.S. (*q.v.*) meetings, and working men's clubs (*q.v.*), in which practical advice is given in very simple form on the subject of health. Leaflets, pamphlets, and small books published by the Society give useful advice and information in a form easily accessible to the social worker. These deal with such subjects as children's diseases, the care of the sick and aged, cookery, food (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY), and are written for parents and

district visitors (see DISTRICT VISITING).

Perhaps the most valuable side of the Society's work has been its success in meeting the great demand for trained women workers. Students of the Society have won public offices such as those of lady sanitary inspector (*q.v.*), health visitor (*q.v.*), infant life protection (*q.v.*) inspector, lady almoner, L.C.C. lecturer on health, etc. At the same time the voluntary health worker, who has no desire to undertake paid work, will find this Society of great service in the promotion of health among the poor.

National Home Reading Union.—A full account by Mr. George Radford of the origin of the Union, its work and methods, was published upon the "coming of age," in 1910, by the Cambridge University Press. The primary aim is to assist the members to secure the greatest amount of pleasure and profit from their reading. The Union provides courses of reading upon a considerable variety of subjects, with lists of selected books suited to readers of varying capacities. Magazines are published monthly, with suggestions and guidance. The chief agency of the Union's work is the reading circle (*q.v.*), but like other kinds of educational work, its success depends in a great measure upon the leader. Reading circles may be formed in connection with any organisation. For young people their value has been recognised, and the work of the Union approved by the Board of Education (*q.v.*), so that they are authorised by local education authorities (*q.v.*) as a regular part of the school curriculum. Although the strength of the Union's work has been in urban districts, it is equally desirable for it to be extended in the villages. The schools can be used for the reading circle which may be recognised as an evening

continuation class, and may readily lead to a desire for the formation of tutorial classes. (See WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.)

National Housing and Town Planning Council.—(See also GARDEN CITIES, OVERCROWDING and RURAL HOUSING.) This Council was established in 1900 as the National Housing Reform Council.

The members of the Council include the founders of garden villages (*q.v.*)—such as Bournville, Port Sunlight, and Earswick—members of Parliament, architects and surveyors, mayors, councillors, and officials of local authorities (*q.v.*), representatives of great workmen's associations, and many ladies and gentlemen interested in social betterment.

The membership subscription to the council is 21s. per annum, and this includes membership of all conferences and meetings and international tours to study town planning (*q.v.*), together with the literature published by the Council.

The work of the Council has for the past ten years been steadily developed, on non-party lines, all over the country to educate public opinion, and to stimulate local authorities, so that the fullest possible use may be made of existing housing and sanitary legislation. It has also strongly supported the demand that Parliament shall take off the municipalities those shackles which tend to render the housing schemes difficult and unnecessarily costly. This has been done by carrying out conferences and lectures on housing and town planning; exhibitions of cottages at Newcastle, Sheffield, and Swansea; inspection of houses unfit for human habitation; and the publication of leaflets, books, pamphlets, and articles describing the powers and duties of municipalities and others under the Housing Acts (*q.v.*).

The Council successfully carried through the National Housing Congress, held in London, 1907, and represents England on the International Housing Committee.

The Council is in constant communication with all continental countries, and receives from its special correspondents particulars as to all new housing movements, new laws or bye-laws, and other information likely to be of service to English housing reformers. These correspondents are monthly kept in touch with all similar information as to progress in this country.

The Council organised the great national deputation in 1906 to the late Prime Minister and the President of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), which resulted in the promise of a Housing and Town Planning Bill, and the Prime Minister on that occasion said: "You have done a great service to your country by coming here to day."

The Chairman of the Council (Alderman W. Thompson) has written four useful, practical books for the council, namely, *The Housing Handbook*, *Housing Up to Date*, *Handbook to the Housing and Town Planning Act*, and *The Town Planning Act in Working*.

The secretary is Mr. H. R. Aldridge, and the offices are at 18, Dulverton Road, Leicester, and 4, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.

National Institution of Apprenticeship.—(See also TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.) The Institution was formed in 1895. Similar work is undertaken by the committees of the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*). The object of the Institution is to apprentice boys and girls on such conditions as will benefit them to the utmost in the future, and eventually make them skilled workers capable of doing fine work.

Members of the staff are regularly employed in calling on masters in suitable trades with a view to induce them to take apprentices. Inquiries are made as to the commercial position of the masters, and care is taken to entrust apprentices only to those who (1) can carry out their contracts to teach, (2) have sanitary workshops, and (3) do not employ an undue proportion of apprentices to skilled workmen. The endeavour is made that the trade selected is suitable to the mental and physical capacity of the apprentice, and in its choice to pay attention to the wish of the boy or girl. The Institution also arranges a suitable length of apprenticeship, the payment of good wages, and a premium reduced to the lowest figure, or waived altogether. The intended apprentice serves a probationary period of one month, or perhaps longer, before indentures are prepared and signed. By the indenture, the Institution is empowered to supervise the apprenticeship, for which purpose visits are made periodically. Premiums range from £10 to £50 for boys, and, with a few exceptions, are paid one-half on signing the indentures and the other half one year later. The wages paid to boy apprentices are generally 5s. per week during the first year, advancing periodically till they reach about 24s. in the last year, and in some cases as much as 27s. per week. Girl apprentices receive from 2s. 6d. to 5s. per week the first year, usually advancing by 2s. to 3s. per week each six or twelve months. An arbitration committee adjusts disputes between the masters and apprentices, and its decisions have been carried out without recourse to any court of law. The Institution also makes loans for the payment of premiums and tools, repayable by the parents of the apprentices by small

instalments, or gives the whole amount, when the parents' means preclude them from repaying.

National Institution for Massage by the Blind.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

National League for Physical Education and Improvement (Offices, 4, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.).—The main object of this League is to form, instruct, and strengthen public opinion concerning the physical condition of the people. It seeks, therefore, to co-ordinate and extend the work of agencies already established, to start organisations for physical health and well-being where none exist, to make known the legal powers already possessed by local authorities, and to promote fresh legislation where necessary. It has especially devoted its attention to the subject of infant mortality (*q.v.*) and the hygiene of child-life, and in this connection has advocated the early registration of births (*q.v.*), the appointment of health visitors (*q.v.*), the medical inspection of school children (*q.v.*), the scientific physical training of school children, etc. The League, in which the Twentieth Century League has been incorporated, works in close connection with the British Institute of Social Service (*q.v.*), and acts very largely as an information bureau on all matters concerning physical education and improvement. It has published a number of useful pamphlets and leaflets on these subjects. It is at present engaged in compiling a London directory of health-promoting institutions, the publication of which will help to prevent overlapping in the work of these agencies. Reports of the work and growth of the League appear regularly in the quarterly journal *Progress*, which serves as the organ of the League. A conference of health-promoting institutions at the Guildhall, London, in December, 1910, was an

instance of the valuable work done by the League.

National Organisation of Girls' Clubs.—(See GIRLS' CLUBS, NATIONAL ORGANISATION OF.)

National Physical Recreation Society.—This Society was founded in 1886 in order to provide opportunities for physical education and recreation (*q.v.*) to all those who are compelled to live in the crowded centres of our large towns. Before the foundation of the Society, individuals had in many places done the work which it undertook. Voluntary teachers had given instruction on gymnastics and similar physical exercise in many clubs for men and boys, and the good results of such work, in spite of difficulties as to organisation, accommodation, and apparatus, made it clear that, if systematically organised, the work might be greatly extended and carried on more efficiently.

With this object this Society was formed. It has six practical aims, which are:—

(1) To assist classes to obtain, especially during the winter months, physical recreation, consisting of musical drill, vocal marching, calisthenics, gymnastics; also healthful games and exercises.

(2) To organise and obtain honorary instruction from existing gymnasia of standing.

(3) To hire, when possible, or to obtain the loan of suitable halls for recreation purposes during the winter months.

(4) To assist by small grants in providing suitable apparatus for gymnasia.

(5) To encourage a taste for physical recreation, and to promote the physical development of the people. For this purpose the Society offers an international challenge shield for competition between the various affiliated public gymnasia throughout the kingdom, and also local challenge shields for

competition among the voluntary classes in each affiliated district.

(6) To encourage legislation in the direction of providing systematic physical education and recreation.

The Society has during the last twenty-five years given free instruction to more than 700,000 young men and women, some of whom are blind, or deaf and dumb. These are drawn from the poor, and would in very many cases have received no physical training without the Society's help. The work is carried on by means of voluntary men and women teachers, who undertake to teach those under instruction during the winter months. The Society has organised a physical test scheme, whereby boys and girls receive certificates or medals on passing certain standards of excellence. Great demands have been made on the Society by those who need grants to fit up small gymnasia, thus proving how much needed its work is. The Society can only respond to few of these appeals through lack of financial support.

National Poor Law Reform Association.—This Association has been formed to advocate the adoption of the proposals contained in the Majority Report of the Poor Law Commission of 1909. (See POOR LAW REFORM.)

National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.—When the London Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was founded by the Rev. Benjamin Waugh in 1884, its primary work was educative, in order to quicken the public conscience. The year 1889 marked an important advance. The Chief Commissioners of the Metropolitan and City of London Police issued instructions that all cases of cruelty to children reported to them should be handed to the Society, which, having spread its

agencies to thirty-one cities and towns, adopted the title of National. Queen Victoria became patron, and the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act received the Royal assent in the same year. The League of Pity, an auxiliary organisation, to arouse the sympathy of children with those in unfortunate circumstances, was started in 1891. The progress of the work has been steady and sustained until, in 1910, there were 250 inspectors, who are ready to investigate and do what is necessary in any case within the scope of the operations of the Society. The great majority of the cases may be attributed to parental ignorance, indifference, and selfishness. Definite cases of cruelty (see CRUELTY TO CHILDREN) are small in proportion, though considerable in number in the aggregate. The Society's work is steadily becoming supplementary to the efforts of the State and local authorities, thus reversing the position at the time of its foundation.

There is a marked increase in recent years in the number of cases referred to the Society from official sources, due to the medical inspection of children (*q.v.*) and similar legislative requirements in the care of children. To many people the work of the Society seems to be the conducting of prosecutions, but that, in fact, forms only a small proportion of the whole. Much is done by the visits of inquiry and warning, accompanied oftentimes with direction and advice. Although the Society is not a charitable agency, the inspectors are enabled to render practical assistance where it is justified by the circumstances, for example, in the provision of clothes, or of the fireguards now required by law for the protection of small children. The Society aims not merely at dealing with an individual member of a family, but at raising the whole; and in

pursuance of that policy, will pay the rent after having secured a conviction leading to the imprisonment of the head of the household. Some of the Society's inspectors have been appointed to act as probation officers (*q.v.*) under the Probation of Offenders Act, 1907.

National Society of Day Nurseries (1, Sydney Street, Fulham Road, S.W.)—(See also DAY NURSERIES.) This Society was founded in 1907. Its aim is to raise the standard of *crèches* already existing, to start new *crèches* where they were needed, and to act as a central society to advise and help those organising *crèches*, and generally to make such institutions more useful and scientific. In order to keep up the standard of *crèches*, the Society has organised a scheme of affiliation by which each affiliated day nursery must receive annually a certificate after a series of questions on its working have been satisfactorily answered by some responsible person connected with it. The Society, when possible, will help to raise a *crèche* to the standard necessary for affiliation, either by advice or by supplying appliances, fittings, and extra staff. The Society maintains that all *crèches* should have one or two girls, aged about fifteen or sixteen, to be trained in the care of children and the management of *crèche* work. For those who are about to start a new *crèche*, the Society has published a small book, entitled *Hints on How to Start a Crèche*, which is full of most valuable advice on the following subjects—the doctor, the position of the *crèche*, the choice of the staff, the duties of a matron, the furniture and the diet sheet. In addition, to this, the Society suggests a few simple rules which add to the efficiency of a *crèche*. The advantages of affiliation as well as the conditions which must be fulfilled in order to obtain it will

increase the efficiency of *crèches* as the Society makes progress and becomes more widely known.

National Special Schools Union.—(See SPECIAL SCHOOLS.)

National Training School of Cookery.—The work of the Training School may be divided into three branches. It is recognised by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) as one of the institutions for the training of teachers (*q.v.*) in domestic subjects. It issues certificates to domestic servants who complete satisfactorily a course of instruction, based, it may be, upon the instruction which they have received at the elementary schools (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY). The School also provides various courses of instruction for ladies in cookery, besides classes in household management, needlework, dressmaking, tailoring, millinery, and laundry work. The work of the School should be distinguished from that of the National School of Bakery and Confectionery, which is organised by the National Association of Master Bakers and Confectioners for the training of students who desire to follow those trades.

National Union for Christian Social Service.—In 1885 the Rev. J. F. B. Tinling appealed to the ministers of the Metropolitan Free Churches to take some common action for the promotion of social reform. A conference was held, and the Christian Union for Social Service was constituted to give expression to the aim of its promoters, and included among the earliest members representatives of the Church of England. Its first and most important piece of work was the establishment at Lingfield, in Surrey of a colony for epileptics and unemployables in 1888. Lingfield was one of the chief examples of a labour colony (see UNEMPLOYMENT), established by voluntary enterprise. It is claimed that more

than one-half of the men sent there in recent years had been restored to independence (*Social Service*, September, 1910). On the other hand, the Poor Law Commission, reporting upon labour colonies connected with religious and charitable organisations, stated: "Temporary improvement has doubtless been achieved in some cases, but we cannot, on the evidence and figures given, speak positively as to the actual percentage of those thus benefited, nor as to the period during which the improvement lasted." Arrangements were made in 1911 to transfer the seventy unemployables to a farm colony at Wallingford near Didcot so that Lingfield might be devoted entirely to one hundred and fifty epileptics. The work of caring for epileptic children has been developed with the co-operation of boards of guardians and local education authorities (*q.v.*), and additional provision is required for the boys and girls as they advance to youth. The second of the institutions to be established by the Union was the Boys' Epileptic Home at Starnthwaite in Westmorland. There is also, about two miles away, a home for older epileptics. A later establishment for epileptics (*q.v.*) is a home at Marple Dale, in Cheshire. The Union publishes a monthly magazine, *Social Service*, containing a current record of the activities of the Union, besides seeking "to act as a means of communication between all those engaged in social service, and to interest a growing number of people in social work."

National Union of Teachers.—Originally formed for elementary school teachers, the N.U.T. has been opened, since 1889, to teachers in all grades of education. Its aim is not only to provide a means for the co-operation of teachers and the expression of their collective opinion

upon matters affecting their own interests, but also to influence the educational policy of the country. The organisation is based upon local associations, which send delegates to an annual conference. The annual subscription entitles members to legal advice and assistance. Connected with the Union are a provident society, which enables the members to obtain annuities and sick and death payments, to accumulate savings and to purchase their houses, and a benevolent and orphan fund, which maintains two orphanages and grants temporary relief and annuities to infirm teachers and widows of teachers. Teachers have availed themselves extensively of these organisations, with the result that they possess large funds and the work connected with them involves the employment of a considerable staff. Among other activities associated with the central office in Russell Square, London, is a reference library, from which members may obtain, without charge, volumes likely to be useful in their work and agitation for reforms. There is also a general information department. The official organ of the Union is the *Schoolmaster*. Other useful publications are the *Teachers' Aid*, a weekly periodical, and the N.U.T. edition of the Board of Education's regulations for the different classes of schools, and a supplementary volume containing much information of a cognate character, known respectively as the "Red Code" and "the Companion to the Red Code."

National Union of Women Workers.—(See also CENTRAL BUREAU FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN, SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND WOMEN'S INDUSTRIAL COUNCIL.) This Union is organised to promote sympathy of thought and purpose among the women of

Great Britain and Ireland ; to promote the social, civil, moral, and religious welfare of women ; to focus and to redistribute information likely to be of service to women workers ; to federate women's organisations ; and to encourage and assist the formation of local branches. All women interested in the objects of the Union are eligible as members of the central society on payment of an annual subscription of not less than 5s., which entitles them to receive various publications of the Union. Anyone wishing to be enrolled as a member of one of the local branches is asked to communicate with the Hon. Secretary of the branch. The subscriptions payable to the local branches vary in amount. The governing body of the Union is the National Council of Women, which, elected annually, is composed of representatives of the local branches, affiliated societies, sectional committees, together with members of the executive and *ex-officio* members. The local branches established in various places number forty-two. Beside these, are 142 societies connected with women's work, affiliated to the central society, but the Union has no power over them. The work of the Union is done by sectional committees, which meet quarterly and deal with the following special branches of work : Legislation affecting women, industrial questions, preventive and rescue work (*q.v.*), work among girls' clubs (*q.v.*), the provision of rest rooms for women and girls employed in exhibitions, international questions, educational matters, and public health. The Union holds a Conference for women workers annually. The National Council of Women is federated to the International Council of Women and thus keeps in close touch with the work of women in other lands. The Union's office is

at Parliament Mansions, Victoria Street, S.W.

The vigour and efficiency with which the Union has carried on its work have made it a centre of much of the best social work now being done by women. The conferences and committees and publications of the Union have made it a real power amongst other national societies working to promote the welfare of women. Among the practical measures for the welfare of women and children to which the Union has contributed, the following may be mentioned as illustrating the value of its work : the appointment of the Wage-earning Children Committee (*q.v.*) and subsequent legislation ; the appointment of women on local education authorities (*q.v.*) ; the formation of the Central Bureau for the Employment of Women (*q.v.*) ; housing reform through the Rural Housing Association (*q.v.*) ; and the provision of rest rooms for women and girls employed in exhibitions.

National Vigilance Association.—(See also RESCUE WORK.) The Association was founded in 1885 to enforce and improve the laws for the repression of criminal vice and public immorality, especially by preventive effort to check the causes of vice. An important branch of its work has been the formation of a band of trained women workers to carry out the obligations incurred by the British Government by the International Agreement for the suppression of the White Slave Traffic, ratified in 1904. By the agreement, "each of the Governments undertakes to have a watch kept, especially in railway stations, ports of embarkation, and *en route*, for persons in charge of women and girls destined for an immoral life. With this object, instructions shall be given to the officials and all other qualified persons to obtain, within legal

limits, all information likely to lead to the detection of criminal traffic. The arrival of persons who clearly appear to be the principals, accomplices in, or victims of, such traffic shall be notified, when it occurs, either to the authorities of the place of destination, or to the diplomatic or consular agents interested, or to any other competent authorities." Workers have been placed accordingly at the London railway stations, meeting all the Continental boat trains, as well as at Liverpool and other ports, to render help and service to all friendless girls and young women of our own and other countries. The Association also conducts inquiries all over the world on behalf of young women, for their protection and safety, as to the *bona-fides* of situations, and distributes a small booklet, entitled *A Friendly Warning*, published in ten languages, and containing the names and addresses of friends of the Association in almost every part of the globe, who would give a helping hand should girls find themselves stranded in a foreign country. The Association has taken action against pernicious literature, indecent pictures, and other dangers to public morals, besides educating public opinion to support the enforcement and demand the strengthening of legislation. An extension of one branch of the Association's work was the constitution of the International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, which is a means of communication between and organisation of the national committees engaged in the suppression of this traffic, so that united action has been taken with advantageous results in carrying out the Agreement of 1904.

Naturalisation.—(See also ALIENS, IMMIGRATION, and UNDESIRABLE IMMIGRANTS.) Certificates of naturalisation are granted by the

Home Secretary upon a memorial from an applicant stating full particulars as to his parentage, nationality, and family in a prescribed form, and that during the period of eight years immediately preceding the application the applicant has for five years resided within the United Kingdom. The statements must be vouched for from the personal knowledge of a natural British-born subject, and a declaration made before a magistrate or other person authorised to receive such declaration. The respectability and loyalty of the applicant must be vouched for by a declaration of four householders, who are natural born British subjects. The Home Secretary has an absolute discretion, from the exercise of which there is no appeal, as to the grant of the certificate. He is not disposed to consider favourably application for certificates of naturalisation from aliens who are not able to read, write, and speak the English language reasonably well, unless there are special circumstances to justify an exception. Upon the grant of the certificate, the naturalised subject must take an oath of allegiance. The total cost of the proceedings is about £6, except in the case of the man who for at least three of the qualifying five years has served on board a British ship, and has been at sea within six months of his application. The applicant then addresses the Home Secretary upon a form containing special instructions, and does not have to pay the fee of £5, so that the cost to him is only about £1.

Nature Study.—(See OUTDOOR EDUCATION and SCHOOL JOURNEYS.)

Navy.—(See SEAMEN, TRAINING OF.)

Navy Employment Agency (16, Craven Street, Strand, W.C.)—This Agency exists to find regular, well-paid work for discharged seamen, stokers, and others of the

Royal Navy and Royal Marines, whose good character is unquestioned. In order that employment may be easily obtained, the Agency instructs and trains the men in various trades and callings. At the same time systematic effort is made to keep in touch with employers. By this means those discharged may be sure of good employment, and employers are provided with reliable workers of good character.

Men applying to the Agency for employment must have reached a certain standard of good character, and are usually recommended by two officers. The work of the Agency is growing, and gaining increased support from the officers and men of the Royal Navy. During the year ending March 31, 1910, the number for whom employment had been found was 1,563, of whom 926 were permanently employed. The total number of men who have passed through the Agency is more than 11,000. Among the means used for fitting men for employment as civilians is the motor school, managed by the Agency at Portsmouth. In this men are taught to drive motor-cars and a motor-boat, and as the demand for "naval chauffeurs" is at present greater than the supply, this is an excellent means of obtaining good employment.

In December, 1908, the Agency entered into an agreement with the Admiralty, by which the latter promised a grant of £1,000 annually, for three years, to be spent in forming extra branches and enlarging the Agency's scope, but no part of the grant may be expended on the work already done by the Agency. Among the good results of this agreement has been the appointment of a travelling secretary, whose duty is to gain the goodwill of employers, and so increase the demand for discharged sailors and marines.

Newsboys.—(See **BOY LABOUR** and **CHILD LABOUR**.)

Newspaper Boys.—(See **BOY LABOUR** and **CHILD LABOUR**.)

Newspaper Nights.—A pleasant change from the ordinary business of a debating society, reading circle (see **NATIONAL HOME READING UNION**), or any fairly intelligent body, such as a working men's club (*q.v.*) or an evening class, may be made by having a newspaper night. Like a reading circle (*q.v.*), it requires a good leader or chairman. The daily paper, preferably the *Times*, may be taken and read to the gathering. Upon any point which is unfamiliar, a member may ask a question which probably some other member will be able to answer, adding further information from his own knowledge. But if no one can answer the question, the duty devolves upon the chairman. If he fails, a member should undertake to look the matter up, when the public library (*q.v.*) will be found useful, or the chairman should make a note of the question, in order to have an answer ready at the next meeting. In conducting a newspaper night somewhat on these lines, it will be found useful to have at hand Pitman's *Public Man's Guide*, which contains a great deal of miscellaneous information upon the current topics of the day.

New Zealand, Colonisation in.—(See also **COLONISATION**.) The "Dominion" of New Zealand regularly receives some 8,000 British colonists each year, and is asking for many more. The two great islands, are situated some 1,500 miles from Australia (*q.v.*) and six weeks' voyage from England. The population is slightly over one million, and is composed wholly of men and women of British blood, except some 47,000 Maori natives—christianised and civilised—but failing in numbers and in physique

as the "rush" of modern life hurries them on to quicker movements. There is no part of the Empire where British people can feel themselves more "at home" than in these long, straggling islands in the Pacific. The North island is largely divided into great farms for stock rearing, and butter and cheese making, while factories for cloth and other articles are multiplying. Wellington, Auckland, Napier, New Plymouth and Palmerston North are enlarging their borders and becoming great centres of industry. Skilled artisans are always required here, but unskilled labour cannot be sent to the towns. Plumbers, carpenters, coach builders and buildlers are certain of good wages, whereas labourers are to be found in the streets of all these towns grumbling about unemployment, the truth being that their up-bringing has unfitted them for the work in the far off farms and stations "up country."

The South Island is largely given to huge "sheep runs," or stations, of some thousands of acres, where the sheep are reared which supply Great Britain with wool and mutton. Shepherds, butchers, veterinary surgeons and farm hands will find plenty of work in the south island farms at good wages.

There are two important movements in New Zealand which ought to be considered by social workers who are anxious to understand the "atmosphere" of the Dominion. The land is constantly changing hands in the North Island. The farmers, after spending a dozen or less years on their land are selling at good prices and proceed to live in the suburbs of the towns or come to England, leaving the land to be developed by the new comers. Land has therefore an upward tendency, and there is no immediate prospect of cheap land to be purchased and developed by

the thousands of labourers. Again, by the side of this natural increase in the value of land, social experiments of very grave and interesting importance are being tried, Land legislation has for its object the gradual ousting of the big landlords, and the creation of much smaller holdings. The drink problem is also receiving much attention, the women's votes tending to force prohibition on the State. Results are not yet so encouraging as social reformers would desire.

The general "movement" in land purchase together with the social experiments so keenly pursued, attract many of our British lower middle class, either to purchase land or to set up in business in the towns. To 80 per cent. of British immigrants, New Zealand becomes a prosperous home, but there are many to whom the Dominion can offer little in the way of regular and remunerative toil.

The causes of these failures are to be closely studied before the despatch of British emigrants on their long voyage.

1. Artisans must be able to take larger views of their trades and not stick closely to their own particular branch, *e.g.*, carpenters must be joiners, masons must be bricklayers, etc.
2. Landing in New Zealand with no money means that the first job must be taken. It is better, when possible, to look round and wait.
3. Lads and young men, unskilled and perhaps town-bred will have no difficulty in getting on to farms, but they must have some idea of the monotony of life, the hard muscular work, the lack of some real outlook towards purchase of land of their own. It is only wise to

consider the further object as well as the mere despatch when choosing colonial life for a lad.

4. Girls are heartily welcomed in New Zealand, where domestic experience is highly valued, and, being rare, high wages, short hours, and, in many cases, excellent homes await the experienced and self-respecting cook, housemaid or nursemaid. But the perils of the voyage are real, and no girl or woman should go out on her own responsibility. The Government make good arrangements, but the British Women's Emigration Association (of the Imperial Institute, S.W.), send a special matron with their emigrants and get into direct touch with the ladies requiring domestic help.

Ladies are required as governesses, but no one should go on the chance of getting a post. Disappointment, and, in some cases, utter failure, awaits those who have no practical knowledge of domestic or farm work. The Dominion is scarcely advanced enough to require more than a very few educationalists from outside. The Agent General (13, Victoria Street, S.W.) will gladly supply all details and is ready at all times to give advice.

Night Work.—(See **FACTORIES, NIGHT WORK IN.**)

Nine Day Nurses.—(See **SICK ROOM HELPS SOCIETY.**)

Non-provided Schools.—(See **ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.**)

Non-Textile Factories.—(See **FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.**)

Notice of Accidents.—(See **WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.**)

Notice to Quit.—(See **LANDLORD AND TENANT.**)

Notification of Births.—(See also **REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS.**) The Notification of Births Act, 1907, provided that "in the case of every child born in an area in which the Act is adopted, it shall be the duty of the father of the child, if he is actually residing in the house where the birth takes place at the time of the occurrence, and of any person in attendance upon the mother at the time of, or within six hours after, the birth," to give notice in writing of the birth to the local medical officer of health within thirty-six hours afterwards.

Its adoption is optional (see **ACTS OF PARLIAMENT**), but the number of local authorities (*q.v.*) adopting the Act increases every year, and reached a total of nearly 200 in 1910.

The object of the Act is to enable medical officers to obtain sufficiently early information of all births to ensure, generally by means of health visitors (*q.v.*), that both mother and child have a fair chance in life (see **INFANT MORTALITY**). The scheme of health visiting is, in fact, dependent upon the adoption of the Act for efficient working, so it is to be hoped that the Act will be adopted to an increasing extent.

Some slight difficulties have been found in the working of the Act owing to the trouble involved on those who have to give notification. This has been obviated in some places by the supply of stamped and printed post cards to doctors and midwives (*q.v.*), and by the payment of a small fee for notifications received.

Notification of Diseases.—Under the Infectious Diseases (*q.v.*) (Notification) Act, 1889, and the Public Health (London) Act, 1891 (*q.v.*), certain diseases must be notified to the local medical officer of health (*q.v.*) by any medical practitioner called in, and also by the

householder. A fee is provided for the doctor, viz., 2s. 6d. in private practice and 1s. for each case in the practice of a public appointment, e.g., a district medical officer under the Poor Law. There is no fee for the householder, and this part of the Act is practically nugatory, as lay persons always plead ignorance of the disease when there is no medical man, and when there is one the notification is left to him. The diseases which must be notified are small pox, cholera, diphtheria, membranous croup, erysipelas, scarlet fever, typhus, enteric fever (or typhoid), relapsing fever, continued fever, puerperal fever, and pulmonary tuberculosis.

Under the Infectious Diseases (Notification) Extension Act of 1899 and the Public Health (London) Act, other diseases may be added to the above list. Thus measles has been made notifiable in many places; chicken pox was made notifiable in London during the last small pox epidemic, and cerebro-spinal meningitis was recently added to the list. The notification must be made "forthwith on becoming aware" of the disease.

The notification of infectious diseases has been found of immense value both for statistics (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS) and prevention. The comparative disappearance of small pox and the great reduction in enteric fever is largely attributable to this means of locating these diseases, and thus enabling the patients to be isolated and the source of the infection discovered. Notification of scarlet fever and diphtheria has led to hospital isolation (see ISOLATION HOSPITALS) of the great majority of these diseases, and to a contemporary diminution of their fatality, although the number of persons attacked continues to be very large. Membranous croup is diphtheria of the larynx, but was

not originally generally known as such. As a result of cheap food relapsing or famine fever has almost disappeared. Continued fever is a term used to include cases which may be enteric or typhus, but in which there is doubt as to the diagnosis.

Notification of disease does not necessarily mean isolation or putting the notified person under any ban. Thus when chicken pox was notifiable there was no restriction on the movements of the patients notified. The object of notifying was to enable inquiries to be made as to the possible mistaking of chicken pox for small pox.

Notification of phthisis is asked for by many medical officers of health chiefly in order that there may be opportunity to educate the patient (1) how to take steps for his own recovery, (2) how to avoid being a source of infection to others. But it would be both undesirable and unnecessary to attempt to isolate all consumptives, or to interfere with them in earning their living (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION).

Notification of measles has not been successful in limiting the prevalence of this affection, nor is it likely to be so (see Whitelegge & Newman's *Hygiene*). Under the Factory and Workshop Act (*q.v.*), medical practitioners must also notify the following industrial diseases to the chief inspector of factories (see FACTORY INSPECTORS). Anthrax, lead poisoning (*q.v.*) and phosphorus, arsenic, and mercurial poisoning (see DANGEROUS TRADES and FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN).

Nuisances.—(See also MEDICAL OFFICER, OF HEALTH, OFFENSIVE TRADES, PUBLIC HEALTH ACT and SANITARY INSPECTORS.) If any person is responsible for serious interference with the property, health, or comfort of other persons,

the injured party may take legal proceedings to obtain a remedy on his own account. Against certain nuisances, however, it is the duty of sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) to protect the public. These special nuisances are as follows:

(1) Any premises (2) any pool, ditch, gutter, water course, privy, urinal, cesspool, drain, or ashpit (3) any animal kept in such a state as to be a nuisance or injurious to health; (4) any accumulation or deposit which is a nuisance or injurious to health; (5) any house so overcrowded as to be dangerous or injurious to the health of the inmates; (6) any workshop, work place, or domestic factory not kept in a cleanly state, or not properly ventilated, or overcrowded; (7) any fireplace or chimney (used for working engines by steam) which does not consume its own smoke, and any chimney (not being the chimney of a private dwelling-house) sending forth black smoke in such quantity as to be a nuisance (see SMOKE NUISANCE).

In London an occupied house without a proper and sufficient water supply (*q.v.*) is a nuisance, as is also absence of water fittings. Outside London the local authority (*q.v.*) may, in certain cases (*e.g.*, when there is a convenient source near by) require an owner to supply water. Bye-laws (*q.v.*) must or may be made for preventing nuisances arising from snow, dust, rubbish, and filth in streets, and from factories (*q.v.*), slaughter-houses, butchers' and fishmongers' shops, and with respect to keeping animals (see ANIMALS, KEEPING OF) and the removal of manure.

One of the most important of the above provisions nowadays is that which enables action to be taken for any premises in such a state as to be a nuisance or injurious to health. Under it, owners are required to repair roofs admitting

rain, and floors which are rotten; to remedy damp walls and cleanse dirty ones, and to repair dilapidations of all kinds. Under it also proceedings have been taken successfully requiring the provision of enlarged windows in dark rooms. (See also Newsholme's *Hygiene*, 1902.)

It is the duty of the sanitary authority (*q.v.*) to cause inspection of their district to be made to discover existing nuisances. When satisfied that a nuisance exists, the sanitary authority must serve a notice on the person responsible, if he can be found, and otherwise on the owner or occupier, but notices for structural defects must be served on the owner (see CLOSING ORDERS). The sanitary authority may in certain cases abate the nuisance and recover the cost. The notice requires the nuisance to be abated within a certain time, say, one or two weeks. If it is not complied with, or, if complied with, is likely to recur, the sanitary authority may take proceedings before a justice, who, on proof of the nuisance, makes an order for abatement or for prohibiting its recurrence, and may inflict a penalty. If the nuisance renders a house unfit for habitation, the justice may order its closure. For further information see Whitelegge & Newman's *Hygiene*.

Nursery Schools.—The kindergarten, in name, has not been officially recognised in elementary schools, except those for defective children; but, of course, its methods have been adopted in them. The subject received consideration in an interesting report upon the education of children under five years of age, published by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) in 1905. While kindergarten teachers were praised, so-called kindergarten occupations were condemned as being contrary to the spirit of Froebel when taught mechanically to large classes. The

evidence was entirely against formal instruction for children under five, which has been discouraged by the Board of Education and local education authorities (*q.v.*), so that the numbers have fallen steadily since that date. For children with decent homes and careful mothers, home is the best place. But it was recognised that the densely populated urban areas, where mothers have to leave their children and go to work, to attend school is better for the babies than to stay away. (But see DAY NURSERIES.) The nursery school was advocated to supply this need. Instead of giving formal instruction, the object of the nursery school is to provide them with a life more suited for their tender years, with time for play and for sleep, as well as for talking, story-telling, and observation. The school should be staffed with motherly young women rather than highly certificated teachers.

Nursing.—(See DISTRICT NURSING, HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, MIDWIVES, QUEEN VICTORIA JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES, ROYAL BRITISH NURSES' ASSOCIATION, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and VILLAGE NURSING.)

Obstructive Buildings. — (See SMALL SLUMS AND UNHEALTHY HOUSES.)

Offensive Trades. — (See also NUISANCES.) The following are included among offensive trades: (1) Blood and bone boiler, soap boiler, manure manufacturer, tallow melter and knacker; (2) fellmonger, tripe boiler, slaughter-house. In London the trades in the first class may not be established anew, while those in the second class are only allowed if sanctioned by the London County Council (*q.v.*), who may add to their number and may make bye-laws for their conduct. Such bye-laws (*q.v.*) have been made, and bye-

laws are also in force for the regulation of fried fish shops, fish curers, and rag and bone shops. In the provinces the business of fellmonger, of blood, bone, soap, and tripe boiling, of tallow melting, and any other noxious or offensive business cannot be established without consent of the urban authority, who may make bye-laws.

The bye-laws that have been made require cleanliness, frequent and regular removal of refuse, proper drainage, and methods for carrying off noxious emanations.

Office Boys.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Old Age Pay.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.)

Old Age Pensions.—(See PENSIONS IN OLD AGE.)

Open-Air Cure.—(See PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION.)

Open-Air Meetings and Processions.—If there is any doubt as to the permissibility of an open-air meeting or procession, it is better to communicate with the police beforehand than to make a stand upon what may be believed to be the legal rights of the participants. The point in both instances is the same—to what extent is there an obstruction? A man unloading a brewer's dray is engaged in a legitimate and necessary occupation, but if he takes too long about it, the proceeding may become an obstruction. Open-air meetings with a worthy object will naturally receive favourable attention from the police if they are conducted with decency and order. An orderly procession is legal, but if there is any opposition, or it brings together a crowd who obstruct the thoroughfare, the promoters may be charged with holding an unlawful assembly.

Open-Air Schools.—(See also DISEASES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.) The first open-air school was held in Germany, at Charlottenburg, in 1904, and was soon followed by four

other schools in Germany. The first open-air school in England was that at Bostall Wood, Plumstead, established by the London County Council (*q.v.*) in 1907. Since then seven new schools have been opened, three in London and one each at Halifax, Bradford, Norwich, and Sheffield. The schools are conducted as day schools under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1899. The children selected must be those certified by the medical officers to be "incapable by reason of physical defect of receiving proper benefit from the instruction in the public elementary schools." They are suffering from such complaints as incipient tuberculosis, anæmia, debility, heart disease, bronchial catarrh, and overwrought nerves. They must be taught in small classes of twenty to twenty-five, so as to obtain individual attention. The hours of instruction must be short to avoid mental fatigue, but the schools can be kept open during the ordinary school holidays. Manual training must be included in the curriculum. The buildings are usually portable sheds, in some cases erected in grounds attached to a large empty house, which can be used for kitchens and in bad weather. The time-table in the London schools is as follows: Breakfast, 9 a.m.; school, 9.30-10.45; recess, 10.45-11; school, 11-12.20; preparing for dinner, 12.20-12.45; dinner, 12.45-1.30; rest and sleep, 1.30-3.30; school, 3.30-5; tea, 5; school (re-creative), 5-7; home, 7. Hand-work (see EDUCATIONAL HANDWORK ASSOCIATION), nature study, local history, geography, practical arithmetic, "school journeys" (*q.v.*), and gardening play a large part in the curriculum. Arrangements are made whenever practicable for giving the children regular baths. The children in the schools all show marked improvement in educa-

tional and physical progress. Parents were invited to contribute to the cost, and in London their payments averaged 1s. to 3s. per child. The domestic staff for each of the London schools consisted of a nurse, cook, kitchen-maid, and male caretaker.

Open Air Treatment.—(See PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION AND SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.)

Ophthalmic Hospitals.—(See BLINDNESS, CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF.)

Optical Instrument-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Oral Teaching.—(See DEAF AND DUMB.)

Orphanages.—The social worker will from time to time come into contact with a widow (see WIDOWS) whose large family of young children cannot be maintained on her slender earnings. One remedy for this is to place one or more of the children in an orphanage. Speaking generally, it is by no means always the best remedy. When it is possible, the woman should be urged and helped to obtain work that will increase her income. In many cases relatives may be found who will take care of one of the children. In some cases the elder children may be provided with light work in domestic service, which will add to the family's earnings. In other cases, especially when the mother's character is not good, the best course is to refer the family to the Poor Law authorities. But when all these remedies have been considered, it will be found that an orphanage, in many cases, is the only means of solving the difficulty. In that case the social worker should be most careful to discover the most suitable orphanage. The children should be sent to an orphanage in which children of similar class and character are to be

found. Care should be taken to find an orphanage in which the "institutional manner" is least pronounced. The worker should not be tempted to find a vacancy in an orphanage for which he may have a letter or a few votes, in which case he may have to spend much time and money in collecting the remaining letters or votes (see CHARITY VOTING REFORM ASSOCIATION). He should consult the *Annual Charities Register and Digest* (q.v.), in which may be found a list of orphanages and homes. He should note the conditions of entry into each, and the description of the class of child for which each is provided. If he is in doubt as to the efficiency or suitability of any orphanage or home, he should seek the co-operation of the Charity Organisation Society (q.v.), or a local guild of help (q.v.), and thus gain the advice of expert workers. Orphanages are of various kinds: some provide for the orphans of members of friendly societies (q.v.), some are free, others demand small payments. The best are those whose governors are most careful to inquire into the circumstances and previous history of the children whom they receive.

Our Dumb Friends' League.—The work of the League is complementary to the work of the Royal Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (q.v.), since its object is the encouragement and promotion of kindness to animals. In the furtherance of that aim it has ambulances for injured horses in London and provincial towns; it possesses a hospital where the sick and injured animals of the necessitous poor may be treated, shelters for stray cats and dogs, and provides assistance for poor people in caring for their animals, including grants of money for dog licences, besides carrying on an educational work among children and granting

rewards for heroic actions on behalf of animals.

Outdoor Education.—(See also AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION and SCHOOL JOURNEYS.) Among the subjects prescribed by the Code for public elementary schools are "Observation Lessons" and "Nature Study." These are intended to develop in the children the faculties of observation and to add to their knowledge of common things. They should have special reference to the surroundings of the children, such as the natural and historical features of the locality and the industries of the inhabitants. As a necessary corollary to this study, visits should be paid to museums and other places of historical and educational interest. School or class excursions may be made for purpose of nature study, either for observing processes of nature, such as the kinds of plants associated with different soils, or for collecting specimens to be used in school demonstrations or experiments. Experiments on the growth of plants are undertaken either in small plots of ground attached to the school, or even in pots. All our common food plants, such as wheat, oats, barley, clover, beans, and potatoes, can be grown in this way, and afford special interest to town children. In many places the local education authority (q.v.) is prepared to supply specimens for the use of classes. The exact course followed naturally depends on the situation of the school, whether it is town or rural, and what facilities it possesses for first hand study. At schools in or near the country, nature study may be connected with the teaching of gardening to the older boys, and there has been a steady increase in the number of scholars taking this subject: in 1907-8, 20,770 children, compared with 14,988 in 1906-7. During 1908-9, 1,573 courses of instruction

were given. In 1907-8 113 girls were instructed in dairying, and in 1908-9 instruction was given at five centres and in three school courses.

Outdoor Relief.—(See also IN-DOOR RELIEF, MEDICAL RELIEF and RECOVERY OF COST OF RELIEF.) The Poor Law Commissioners of 1834 (see POOR LAW, HISTORY OF) intended that all relief, except to the infirm, should be institutional relief, but their recommendations never became law. Outdoor relief is at present governed mainly by the outdoor relief prohibitory order issued in 1844, which, with certain exceptions, prohibits relief to the able-bodied (see ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS) except in the workhouse (see WORKHOUSES); and by the outdoor relief regulation order of 1852, supplemented by a labour test order. The order of 1852 is less stringent, and allows out-relief to the able-bodied under certain conditions, provided that at least one-half is given in kind, and that the male person be set to work by the guardians and continues at work under their direction and supervision during receipt of relief. Guardians are also allowed to make exceptions, provided they report their action to the central authority within twenty-one days. Generally speaking, the regulation order of 1852 is in force in the large industrial areas and small rural districts where there is no workhouse, and the prohibitory order is in force in the rest of the country. In view of the recommendation of the Royal Commissioners of 1909 (see POOR LAW REFORM), the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) issued a circular to boards of guardians on the lines of Lord Goschen's Minute of 1869, and a departmental Committee appointed in 1910 issued a report recommending that one uniform order should be issued. Much up to the present has been left to the discretion of guardians,

and the general consensus of opinion is that, difficult and complicated though the whole question be, there has been a complete lack of uniformity of method and administration, and that where outdoor relief has been given, there has been an inadequate attempt to deal with distress and permanently to uplift by its means the family in need. The differing policies of various boards of guardians have been freely criticised, experienced administrators like Miss Octavia Hill, Professor Fawcett, and Mr. Bryce emphasising the need of stricter administration in the interests of the poor themselves, and the tendency of outdoor relief, when given indiscriminately, to increase pauperism and to depress wages. Since 1870, when the number of outdoor paupers per thousand of the population was 37.7, there has been an almost continuous decrease, and the figures stand in the annual report of the Local Government Board for 1910 at 15 per thousand on July 1, 1909, and 15.2 per thousand on January 1, 1910. This has been brought about mainly by a "determined effort to introduce wisdom and self-restraint in the administration of outdoor relief, and also by a strenuous, if not very successful, attempt to bring about co-operation between the Poor Law and charities." The Commissioners' Report of 1909 recommends that no out-relief should be given unless the recipients are leading respectable lives in decent houses, and that powers should be given to the relief authority under due precautions to remove certain cases where indoor treatment is necessary for their own sake or the sake of their neighbours to an institution. It is also of great importance that boards of guardians should be in close touch with such bodies as the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), the trustees of local and larger charities, the labour

exchanges (see UNEMPLOYMENT) of the Board of Trade (*q.v.*), etc., in order that cases which can better be dealt with by them may be kept off the rates.

Out-relief to widows (*q.v.*) with children ought to have special and adequate attention, and it is often wiser to take certain children to the schools (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW) and to leave the mother only such as she can maintain and care for efficiently at home (see WOMEN WITH CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW). A recent circular of the Local Government Board recommends also that the list of persons in receipt of out-relief should be frequently revised, and that no relief should be given for long periods. It is also recommended that pay stations should be abolished, and where this has already been done the inspectors report considerable improvement in the administration of outdoor relief.

Out of Work Cases.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Out of Work Pay.—(See TRADES UNIONS.)

Overcrowding.—(See also CLOSING ORDERS and GARDEN CITIES.) There is no exact legal definition of overcrowding, but for the purposes of the Census the Registrar-General defines it as being the occupation of a dwelling with more than two adults to each room, counting two children under twelve as equivalent to one adult. Professor Huxley fixed the quantity of cubic space per adult at 800 cubic feet, and New York sanitary law requires 600 cubic feet; in Belgium the figure is 565 cubic feet. Bye-laws for common lodging houses prescribe 240 to 300 cubic feet, and those for houses let

in lodgings 400 to 450 cubic feet for bedrooms for each adult.

The causes of overcrowding in Great Britain may be summarised as follows :—

(1) The sudden industrialization of the country owing to the application of power, first water and then steam, to the processes of manufacture. The end of the eighteenth century and the early part of the nineteenth century saw a great crowding of the population into the industrial towns specially in the North, while public opinion was but little educated in the laws of health (see ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE).

(2) The gradual but persistent drift of the rural population from the country to the towns. During the last half-century the balance of country and town population has been practically reversed. At the present time more than three-fourths of the population reside in urban areas.

(3) The consequent tendency of rents to rise. The law of demand and supply has tended to make rents rise in greater degree than wages. Defective transit (see CHEAP TRAINS) facilities and the locking-up of suburban land have prevented the community in the past from spreading and thus relieving congested centres of population.

The evils arising from overcrowding are admittedly very grave. The general death rate (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS) is found to vary inversely with the number of rooms occupied by families. The infant mortality (*q.v.*) rate is even more sensitive to housing conditions, as indicated by the following interesting figures :—

County.			Population.	Percentage of Overcrowding.		Deaths.	Infant Mortality per 1,000 Births.			
CASE I.—										
Durham	1,194,442	..	28.4	..	21,962	..	156
Essex	1,062,452	..	2.7	..	14,913	..	115

<i>County.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Percentage of Overcrowding.</i>	<i>Deaths.</i>	<i>Infant Mortality per 1,000 Births.</i>
CASE II.—				
Northumberland ..	602,859	.. 32.0	.. 10,997	.. 152
Sussex	605,763	.. 1.5	.. 7,925	.. 95
CASE III.—				
Lancashire and York- shire	7,203,613	.. —	.. 128,212	.. 152
London, Middlesex, Berks, Hants, Surrey	7,182,318	.. —	.. 104,118	.. 118

Not only is there a heavier death rate where overcrowding exists, but statistics show that there are four times as many cases of infectious diseases (*q.v.*) in overcrowded districts as elsewhere. Illness leads to unemployment (*q.v.*) and poverty, which, in their turn, mean increased rates and diminished prosperity for the nation.

Intemperance and lunacy are found most prevalent where overcrowding is most intense. A London County Council (*q.v.*) return some few years ago gave the following figures of pauper lunatics:—

	<i>Persons per acre.</i>	<i>Lunacy rate.</i>
All London ..	58	1.9
Bethnal Green	171	6.7
Holborn ..	186	8.2
Strand	143	11.0

The physical development of children clearly depends on their upbringing amid fresh air, sunlight, and vegetation. Dr. Arkle, of Liverpool, has shown that boys in Port Sunlight are, at fourteen years of age, six inches taller and 32 lbs. heavier, on an average, than boys of parents earning similar wages and living in Liverpool.

The remedies for overcrowding are as follows:—

(1) The spreading of the population by means of cheap cottages, a limited number to the acre, on the outskirts of towns, under well-considered town planning (*q.v.*) schemes.

(2) The provision of cheap transit (see CHEAP TRAINS) to suburban districts to enable work people easily to reach their place of work.

(3) The demolition of the worst slum areas, and the opening out of courts and mean streets to make the less overcrowded districts sanitary.

(4) General powers of land purchase for local authorities (*q.v.*), so that cottages can be erected and let at reasonable rents to working people on land before the extreme needs of the town have forced up the price to famine height.

(5) The retention by towns of a belt of land for small holdings (*q.v.*), in order to secure vegetation to purify the air passing into the town.

(6) In some cases the definite formation of new towns, such as the Garden City at Letchworth, in order to remove factories (*q.v.*) from overcrowded centres and give the employees who must live near their work a chance of healthy homes (see GARDEN VILLAGES AND GARDEN SUBURBS).

The Housing and Town Planning Act of 1909 (see HOUSING ACTS), together with a long series of Housing and Public Health Acts, gives to local authorities powers to carry out many of these suggested remedies, while the common law of the land leaves great power in the hands of private landowners to deal with the problem on their own estates.

Overcrowding in Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Overseers.—The annually appointed parish overseers (originally a Poor Law authority) are now primarily a rating authority (see LOCAL AUTHORITIES); but they also have important duties in connection with valuation (*q.v.*), appeals against rates, and the preparation of jury lists and lists of voters (see FRANCHISE). Except in case of legal exemption or disqualification, the office of overseer is compulsory. It is also unpaid. The power of appointment, in the case of rural parishes, is vested in the parish councils (*q.v.*) or parish meetings (*q.v.*), provision being made whereby the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) may confer the like power, in the case of urban parishes, on the borough or other district council; and the power has been largely conferred accordingly. Otherwise the justices appoint. Paid "assistant overseers" can be appointed by the same authorities as appoint the overseers. Overseers levy poor rates amounting (last return) to £27,000,000 a year. Out of these and other receipts they pay contributions to other local authorities (*q.v.*) amounting to £27,100,000 and themselves expend some £700,000. Their outstanding loans amounted to £32,000. They may also have other rates to collect, *e.g.*, separate rates for "special" expenses of rural district councils (*q.v.*), and separate lighting rates. No separate overseers are now appointed in London: in the City the common council (*q.v.*), and in the metropolitan boroughs the borough councils (see METROPOLITAN BOROUGH COUNCILS) act as overseers.

Overtime Work.—(See FACTORIES, OVERTIME IN.)

Packing.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Packing Case Manufacture.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Pages.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Painting and Decorating.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Parish Councils.—These act only for parishes in rural districts in England and Wales. Rural parishes numbered (last return) about 12,930, but there are some 5,700 of them which have no parish councils. The council consists of a chairman and councillors, the former elected for one year from within or without the council, and the latter directly elected for three years. A vice-chairman may be elected from among the members of the council. A parish council may appoint a clerk and a treasurer. The assistant overseer is usually the clerk. The powers of a parish council include the appointment of overseers (*q.v.*) and assistant overseers; appeals in certain cases against rates and valuations (see VALUATION); provision of parish books, rooms, and offices; management of parish property, village greens, and allotments; fire engines; power to complain to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) or the county council, on failure of other local authorities (*q.v.*) to exercise certain powers under the Public Health and Housing Acts (*q.v.*); utilization of local water sources; cleansing of foul ditches and pools, and removal of filth (see NUISANCES); footpaths and rights of way; the acceptance of gifts on behalf of the inhabitants. They may accept the delegation to them of some sanitary powers of the rural district council (*q.v.*). They are the authority to execute within the parish the Lighting and Watching Act (as to public lighting and fire engines); the Baths and Wash-houses (*q.v.*) Acts (as to baths, wash-houses, and open bathing places); the Burial Acts (as to burial grounds); and the Public Libraries (*q.v.*) Acts (as to libraries, museums,

art galleries, etc.), where these Acts have been duly adopted (see PARISH MEETINGS). They have also important powers with regard to charities. Of the 7,000 odd parish councils in existence, only some 6,600 (last return) had any accounts to present. These expended between them a sum approaching £221,000. Their loan debt amounted to £192,000. Their principal source of revenue (other than as regards charities) is the rates.

Parish Doctor.—Parish doctor is the popular name for the medical officer appointed by the Poor Law Guardians for recommending outdoor medical relief (see MEDICAL RELIEF).

Parish Meetings.—There is a parish meeting for every rural parish. The total number of parish meetings, therefore, are (last return) at least 12,900. The parish meeting, which consists of the "parochial electors" must assemble at least once (or if there is no parish council (*q.v.*) for the parish, at least twice) a year, in the evening. If there is a parish council, the chairman of the council is *ex-officio* chairman of the parish meeting. If there is no parish council, the parish meeting elects a chairman annually. Where there is no parish council, the parish meeting has, or may obtain, practically the same powers as a parish council. Where a "council" is established, the powers of the "meeting" are necessarily restricted. The following applies to the latter case. The parish meeting elects the parish councillors, subject to a right of poll. It has some control over the expenditure and certain decisions of the council. It adopts (although the council will execute) the Lighting and Watching and certain other Acts (see PARISH COUNCILS). It has a general power to discuss parish affairs and pass resolutions. Of the 5,700 parish meetings where

there were no parish councils, only 385 (last return) had any accounts. These expended £2,350 between them, and had an aggregate loan debt of £1,780.

Parliamentary Papers.—(See also BIBLIOGRAPHIES.) Thousands of papers are printed every year for the information of Parliament. They are known generally as "blue books," owing to the fact that many have covers of that colour. The contents range over a multiplicity of subjects. Some volumes, such as the reports of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) and the Board of Education (*q.v.*), are published annually. The Home Office (*q.v.*) does not issue an annual report. Others are prepared in response to a special demand. Subjects of social reform usually receive attention either in the form of a report of some experiment, which may have been tried in another part of the British Empire, or in some foreign country, or in a compilation of statistics or other information as a basis for action in the United Kingdom. Efforts have been made in recent years to render these blue books more attractive to the general reader, but, as a general rule, the social worker may find that the form and arrangement of the contents render it difficult to assimilate the information with ease. Generally these official publications have one point in their favour: they are published practically at cost price, which often amounts only to a small sum. The fact, however, that there is practically no profit on the sale renders it difficult to obtain them through the ordinary trade channels, but they can be ordered direct from Wyman & Sons, Fetter Lane, E.C. Any blue book upon a subject of current interest should be obtainable in any public library. An attempt to compile a list of blue books likely to be useful to the social worker would occupy more space

than its utility would justify, but some of the more important are mentioned under their respective subjects.

Parochial Relief Committees.—(See also POOR LAW RELIEF COMMITTEES.) It is a great advantage for a relief committee to work within a comparatively small area ; it then becomes possible for the secretary to be in close touch with the many kinds of workers who visit the poor. Clergymen and other busy people can afford time to attend committee meetings if they have not far to go, and are only required to consider cases coming from the area with which they are personally concerned.

Most of the relief committees in London which restrict themselves to a small area are parochial. Some of them work more or less upon the lines of the district committees of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), adopting similar case-papers (see CASE PAPER SYSTEM), methods of inquiry and principles of decision (see SOCIAL WORKER, TRAINING OF). The secretary, specially trained for the post, is a representative of the Church. The incumbent is generally, though not always, the chairman. The committee consists of the principal Church workers, and it is advisable to secure, in addition, representatives of other relief agencies affecting the district, especially a guardian or a Poor Law official and a member of the local committee of the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*). Cases cannot be properly understood and dealt with unless both men and women attend the meetings at which applications are considered.

The committee generally meets once a week, but is responsible for a case as soon as application has been made to it. The secretary (in most cases a woman) is empowered, when necessary, to take action on her own initiative (preferably with

the consent of the chairman). She reports her action at the next meeting of committee.

There should be at least two fixed times at which applicants can be sure of finding the secretary in her office. She should, however, be ready to deal with urgent cases any day of the week.

The committee undertakes systematic inquiry, and gives adequate relief, dispensing the poor fund in co-operation with other charitable agencies. Cases are judged on their merits. Religious denomination is only taken into account for purposes of co-operation (see REGISTRATION OF ASSISTANCE), and no partiality is shown to those who attend Church services.

Clergymen and district visitors (see DISTRICT VISITING) are expected to refer all cases in the parish suitable for relief to the relief committee, and not to act independently of it, except sometimes in the case of dying persons, or before there is time to put an urgent case into the hands of the secretary. On the other hand, all Church workers give the committee full advantage of their knowledge of the applicant's family and their friendship with it, in order that the help given may be made as efficient as possible. An Association of Parochial Relief Committees in South London (Hon. Secretary, Miss Leather, 131, Kennington Road, S.E.) has been formed for the following purposes :—

(a) To keep up the standard of the relief committees by their secretaries or representatives meeting from time to time to compare notes and discuss developments in the work.

(b) To draw in and interest district visitors in the principles of a larger charity.

(c) To be prepared to help any other committee that may be started.

Particulars Clause.—It is somewhat unfortunate that this very important clause of the Consolidated Factory Act (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901) is not always understood. The scheme is somewhat elaborate, and, therefore, necessitates considerable explanation; but once the main details are grasped, it is not difficult to comprehend. Workers in trades to which the regulations apply, who are paid by the piece and not by time, must receive from the person who gives out the work "particulars" of the rate of wages to be paid for that work and "particulars" of the work which is to be done. Sometimes a costume will be sold retail in the shops with a small ticket attached to it, which has been left on by mistake. This ticket may have on it the word "machining," and underneath "2s." It acted as an indication to the machinist that she was to machine the costume and to be paid 2s. for so doing. If the occupier of the factory fails to supply these particulars in writing when giving out the work, he is liable to a penalty not exceeding £10; and if any worker discloses particulars for the purpose of divulging a trade secret, or if any person solicits a worker to do so, he is equally liable to a fine up to £10. The Act requires that particulars of the rate of wages and of the work to be done must be published in every textile factory. In the case of weavers in the worsted and woollen trades (except hosiery), the requisite particulars must be supplied to each weaver when the work is given out and also exhibited on a placard in a public position. Particulars must be similarly supplied to every cotton weaver, and the basis and conditions by which the prices are regulated must be publicly placarded. In the case of other textile workers, if the same particulars are applicable

to all the persons in one room it is sufficient to exhibit them effectively in that room, otherwise they must be supplied individually. The use of an automatic indicator to measure work is also governed by statutory regulations.

When the Home Secretary is satisfied by the report of an inspector that the foregoing regulations, suitably modified, are applicable to any class of non-textile factories, or to any class of workshops, or to any class of outworkers of whom lists have to be kept, he may issue a Special Order accordingly. The Act cannot be applied generally; each trade must have its own special rules.

The issue of special orders (see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901) with respect to the Particulars Clause began in 1898 with an order as to textile workshops. Lock, latch and key makers and the makers of chains and anchors came under the section in 1902, and felt hat makers in 1903. A considerable number of small miscellaneous industries and some big ones were brought in in 1907. The "wearing apparel" order reads that the provisions of the Particulars Clause shall apply to the "making, altering, ornamenting, finishing, and repairing of wearing apparel," and demands that the employer shall furnish every worker with particulars of rates of wages of the work given out to him either by furnishing him with a written statement, or, if he works in a factory or workshop, by exhibiting such particulars on a placard containing no other matter, and posted so as to be easily legible by the worker. The employer is also to furnish particulars in writing of the work given out, and symbols are not to be used. Factory outworkers (*v.v.*) are included in all the orders, except the one with regard to the making of pens, and so also are middlemen. (See also SWEATED INDUSTRIES.)

There are now very few trades to which the Particulars Clause does not apply, as the Secretary of State issued more special orders in April, 1911.

The number of textile and non-textile factories and workshops which had to comply with the provisions of the Particulars Clause in 1909, was 30,170.

Pattern-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Pauper Funeral.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Pauper Litigants.—(See POOR MAN'S LAWYER.)

Paupers.—(See SETTLEMENT AND REMOVAL OF PAUPERS.)

Pawnbrokers.—A pawnbroker, before commencing business, must provide himself with a licence, annually renewable at a cost of £7 10s. for each shop, granted by the Inland Revenue authorities under certain conditions. He is bound by law to give a pawn-ticket to every person who pawns goods with him. If the pawn-ticket is lost, stolen, or destroyed, the owner of the goods pawned should apply to the pawnbroker to supply him with a form of declaration of ownership. Accompanied by a witness to identify him, he may make the declaration before a magistrate or commissioner for oaths. Such a declaration delivered to the pawnbroker within three days of the date on which the form was obtained from the pawnbroker confers the same rights as the pawn-ticket would have done. Failing a declaration of this sort, the holder of the pawn-ticket is assumed to be entitled to the goods.

The charges a pawnbroker is entitled to make are :—

(1) If the loan is for 10s. or less, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. for the ticket, and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. profit on each 2s. or part of 2s. lent per calendar month.

(2) If the loan is for more than 10s., but not exceeding 40s., 1d. for the ticket and profit as before.

(3) If the loan is for more than 40s., 1d. for the ticket and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. profit on each 2s. 6d. or part of 2s. 6d. lent per calendar month.

When the loan exceeds £2, a special contract may be entered into. For this the pawnbroker must sign the ticket containing the special terms, and the person pawning the goods must sign a duplicate ticket.

The property may be redeemed at any time within one year and seven days from the date of pawning. At the expiration of this period :—

(1) When the loan is for not more than 10s., the goods pawned become the pawnbroker's property.

(2) When the loan is for more than 10s., the pawnbroker has the right to sell the pledge by auction. Until the actual sale, however, the goods may be redeemed. The sale must be advertised, and a full catalogue must be issued giving the pawnbroker's name and the month in which each article was pawned. It is open to the pawnbroker to bid in the ordinary way. He is bound to keep for three years a marked catalogue, signed by the auctioneer, and on payment of 1d. the holder of the pawn-ticket may examine the account of the sale in this or in the pawnbroker's books. On demand, the pawnbroker must pay over to him any surplus there may be above the amount of the loan and the statutory charges, subject to the condition, however, that there may be set off against this surplus any deficiency on the sale of another pledge of the same person within twelve months.

The pawnbroker is liable for the loss of a pledge by fire, or for damage due to his neglect, default, or wilful misbehaviour.

A person who knowingly and designedly pawns the property of another person without his authority is liable, on conviction, to a fine not exceeding £5, and to forfeit the

value of the pledge. This money may be applied to the reimbursement of the injured person and to defraying the costs of the prosecution.

When a person has been convicted of unlawfully pawning or of stealing goods which have subsequently been pawned, the court convicting the offender may order the pawnbroker to restore the goods to their rightful owner. Whether the owner shall pay anything or nothing to the pawnbroker for the goods is a matter for the discretion of the court.

Pea Pickers.—Lincolnshire is the county containing the largest area devoted to the growing of peas, but the picking is done principally by local labourers. In Essex and Worcestershire some difficulties have arisen through the importation of labour. Some pickers are vagrants (*q.v.*), others are casual labourers, who benefit by the change of air and work; while a third group is formed of hawkers, gypsies (*q.v.*), and others who lead a similar nomadic life. The wages vary according to the size of the peas. In Worcestershire the amount ranges from 5d. to 8d. per "pot," equal to about 40 lbs., and in Essex from 1s. to 1s. 6d. per "bag," about 80 lbs. The pea picker has to occupy any old place which can be found, and less attention appears to be paid to his accommodation than in the case of hop and fruit pickers (*q.v.*). No provision is made for food or cleanliness. Charitable agencies, such as the Church Army (*q.v.*) and Salvation Army (*q.v.*), endeavour to mitigate the unpleasant conditions. The residents in the pea-growing districts regard the pickers as an unmitigated nuisance, and it must be admitted that their presence does give the police a good deal of trouble. The circumstances of the crop render it more difficult to anticipate the arrival of the pickers. There is no organisa-

tion or recruiting of them as in the case of hop-pickers, so that the difficulties are greater. Dr Farrar, the inspector of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), in a special report devoted to the subject, has suggested that the remedy for the evil lies in the employment of more local labour, which is generally available, and the organisation of the imported labour in gangs in the same way as the hop-pickers or strawberry-pickers are brought to the crops. Where the farmer has the will, there is generally a way either by making use of some existing buildings, putting up temporary structures, or even rigging tents, by which he can provide decent accommodation; but the law does not compel him to do so, although it authorises the local authority to see that any provision which he may make is sanitary.

Pedlars' Certificates.—(See LICENCES.)

Penitentiaries.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Penny Banks.—(See THRIFT.)

Pensions in Old Age.—By pensions we mean cash allowances made at periodic intervals (either inalienable or subject to the continuance of certain conditions) on account of past services, age, disability, and so forth.

They may be divided into these classes:—

Benevolent.

Actuarial (under Government control).

„ (voluntary and mutual).

Old age (of the Old Age Pensions Act, 1908).

Pensions for Government service, such as those granted to sailors, soldiers, and the retired staff of Government departments are not in the strict sense of the word "pensions." They are of the nature of deferred pay, and contracts for service are effected by the fact that

in certain events the pension will be paid. The allowances of this class given to high officials need not be considered, but in practice the social worker will be brought into touch with retired policemen, soldiers, sailors, postmen, municipal workers of the artisan class, and messengers of Government offices, and the like. In almost all instances the person in question will be able to produce his papers, giving details of the amount he is receiving. Information can also be obtained by writing, in the first instance, to the particular department in each case.

Benevolent Pensions. The pensions given by private persons to old servants or dependents, need only be referred to in passing. Pensions granted by benevolent and philanthropic societies are of more practical interest. The list of such societies aiding the needy in many classes is long. In it will be found societies for granting pensions to the blind (*q.v.*), the deaf (*q.v.*), the dumb, to persons who have been engaged in certain professions or occupations, such as the law, the stage, or music; and among occupations of a less technical nature, such as those of goldsmiths, painters, omnibus drivers, domestic servants, and so forth. Then, again, there are societies giving annuities to those who have resided in or are natives of a particular locality, such as a county or a parish (see *ENDOWED CHARITIES*). In most instances, the recipients need never have subscribed to the particular society, but in a few they must have embraced membership by payment of a donation or subscription bearing no scientific relation to the benefit looked for. Such pensions can be obtained in diverse ways, according to the rules of the several societies, either by election by the subscribers, by the recommendation of a committee, or by modifications of

these plans. The City of London Companies also grant pensions. Some of these pensions are limited to Freemen (*q.v.*) of the Companies, others to these Freemen and their relatives; but in other instances the grants are made without these limitations. It will be seen that the special qualifications of an applicant for help should be considered before any of these institutions are applied to. The *Annual Charities' Register and Digest (q.v.)* can be consulted for details.

Pensions on an Actuarial Basis under Government Control. First under this head must be placed annuities granted under the management of the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt. These are "immediate," "deferred" (that is, beginning after a certain term of years), or "terms of years" annuities. The two last are based on somewhat complicated conditions, and details of the premiums, or amounts to be sunk, are only quoted by the Commissioners when specific cases are laid before them. As regards the "immediate" annuities, tables giving the rates can be obtained on application to the National Debt Office, 19, Old Jewry, London, E.C. They are based on the market price of £100 of 2½ per cent. consolidated stock, so that the lower the price the larger the annuity. A man aged seventy can, by purchase of £100 of stock when the price lies between £79 13s. 8d. and £80 6s. 6d., obtain an annual pension of £10 4s. 11d. for the rest of life. The pension or annuity is paid quarterly. No sum less than £100 of stock or of money equal to the market price of the same can be transferred or paid in the first instance.

Secondly, under this section must be placed:—

Post Office Savings Bank Annuities. These are of two kinds: *Immediate* and *Deferred*. As to the

immediate annuities, these can be purchased by anyone from age five. For instance, a man of seventy can purchase an annual pension of £1 a year for a sum of £7 19s. 5d. A woman will have to pay £8 14s. 2d. for the same. An annuity of a larger amount costs more in exact proportion. No larger sum than £100 a year can be thus secured. The deferred annuities may begin at the expiration of ten years and upwards. If the contract is taken out under certain conditions the premiums can be recovered on application or on death before the annuity begins.

Pensions offered by Friendly Societies (q.v.). Some of the more important friendly societies, such as the Oddfellows (Manchester Unity) and the Ancient Order of Foresters, offer to their members old age pensions. The arrangement is, as a rule, permissive, and not obligatory. The favourite age for the commencement of pensions is sixty-five years. For instance, in the Ancient Order of Foresters the extra annual premium for a pension of 5s. a week, to begin at age sixty-five, is 8s. 3d. for a male member who begins his payments at age twenty. If he begin at age sixty he would have to pay yearly £15 18s. 9d. for the same pension. In some instances, a member can relinquish his right to sick pay at sixty-five and have it converted into a weekly pension instead. A few of the smaller friendly societies give pensions in old age to all members. Their tables of contributions are arranged accordingly. Plans for the provision of old age pensions through the friendly societies have received a decided check on account of the action of the Old Age Pension Act, 1908.

Old Age Pensions under the Act of 1908. By this Act pensions are granted by the State under these conditions :—

(1) The person must have attained the age of seventy.

(2) The person must satisfy the Old Age Pension Authority that for at least twenty years up to the date of the receipt of the pension he has been a British subject, and has had his residence (as defined in the Act) in the United Kingdom.

(3) The person must satisfy the Pension Authority that his yearly means calculated under the Act do not exceed £31 10s.

The rates of pensions payable are as follows :—

*Rate of
Weekly
Pension.*

Where the yearly means do not exceed £21	5s.
Exceed £21, but do not exceed £23 12s. 6d.	4s.
.. £23 12s. 6d. but do not exceed £26 5s.	3s.
.. £26 5s., but do not exceed £28 17s. 6d.	2s.
.. £28 17s. 6d., but do not exceed £31 10s.	1s.
.. £31 10s.	No pension.

A person is not disqualified from receiving a pension if he has in the past been in receipt of Poor Law relief. He is disqualified whilst he is the inmate of a Poor Law institution, whilst he is in receipt of Poor Law relief (other than medical relief), or if, up to the age of sixty, he has habitually failed to work according to his ability, opportunity, or need (unless he has made provision for old age sickness, or want); or if he be detained in prison he is disqualified from receiving or continuing to receive a pension whilst he is so detained, and for a further period of ten years from the date of his release. The court has power to disqualify for a pension for a period of ten years persons convicted under the Inebriates' Act, 1898. In the case of married couples living together, their means are not taken to be less than half the total means of the couple.

Pensions cannot be assigned or passed to any persons acting on behalf of creditors.

Pensions are payable each Friday at convenient post offices, where also particulars as to the pensions can be obtained.

Permissive Legislation. — (See ACTS OF PARLIAMENT.)

Personal Health.—(See also INFECTIOUS DISEASES.) Personal health can only be briefly dealt with in the limits of this volume. Inheritance of a good constitution is a necessary stock-in-trade of a healthy person, but as a man cannot choose his ancestors, this article will not touch on the difficult and debatable ground of Eugenics (*q.v.*). The health of infants, too, is discussed elsewhere (see FEEDING OF INFANTS and INFANT MORTALITY).

The subject may be best dealt with under the following heads: (1) Diet; (2) clothing; (3) employment; (4) air; (5) bathing; (6) exercise; (7) sleep; (8) attention to the teeth and bowels.

(1) *Diet.* Food must be sufficient, but moderate in amount, and taken regularly. Three or four meals should be taken a day, and no food between meals. The amount to be taken varies with the age and size of each person, and especially with the amount of work he is doing; it varies also with the temperature, more food being required in cold weather. An average diet for a man at work would contain 13 oz. of bread, $4\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of fat, $6\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of meat, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of fresh vegetables. The above quantities exclude water, which is about half the weight of meat and bread. When at rest a man only requires about half as much nitrogenous food and fat, and about two-thirds as much carbohydrates. It has been shown by Chittenden that much smaller amounts of food than the above are compatible with health. Ex-

cept among the poorest class of the community, there is a tendency to eat to excess, and the middle and upper classes consume particularly an excess of meat.

Food should be taken slowly and well masticated; it is a good rule to bite each mouthful fifty times before swallowing. Coarse and hard foods which give exercise to the jaws and teeth are to be preferred to soft and rich foods, *e.g.*, stale and crusty bread with butter to hot tea cakes, roast or boiled fresh meat to beef tea or jelly, apples and nuts to jam. A crust or an apple is a good thing to finish a meal with, as they clean the teeth. It is better not to drink till the end of a meal. Tea and coffee should not be taken along with meat, as they diminish its digestibility, and at all times they should be taken, like alcoholic stimulants, if taken at all, in strictest moderation, not at every meal, as is too much the custom.

Alcoholic stimulants should never be taken between meals, and the total quantity daily should not exceed 1 oz. of alcohol, *i.e.*, about a pint of beer, two glasses of wine, or 2 oz. of spirits. Every diet should contain a suitable proportion of nitrogenous food, fat, and carbohydrates, and salts. Nitrogen is contained in large proportions in animal flesh, fish, milk, cheese, peas, beans, and lentils; less in nuts and the various cereals (wheat, barley, and oats); and least in potatoes, herbaceous vegetables, and fruits. Fat is found in the animal foods: meat, butter, milk, and cheese; nuts and cocoa nibs also consist largely of fat, and from the latter vegetable butter is manufactured. Oatmeal also contains a considerable proportion of fat. Our chief sources of carbohydrates are wheaten flour, oatmeal, and potatoes. The value of fresh vegetables and fruits is chiefly in the salts which they contain; they are most valuable

when uncooked; their absence from the diet causes scurvy and other affections.

A diet containing one meal of meat or fish a day is probably the most suitable to the majority of persons, but a purely vegetarian regimen is decidedly more healthy than the carnivorous fare partaken of thrice daily by numbers of people. Vegetarians must depend mainly on milk, cheese, pulses (peas, beans and lentils), and nuts for their nitrogen, and these do not allow of much variety.

The fashionable bread made of fine white flour is deprived of the most nutritious parts of the wheat grain. Finely ground wholemeal bread and household or standard bread (which is cream coloured and contains the germ of the grain) are much more nourishing and wholesome.

Sick and delicate persons require special diets which are not here considered.

(2) *Clothing* must depend on the climate and weather. In temperate and cold climates all wool is the best apparel; it is warmer and lighter, absorbs perspiration, and consequently prevents chill. In warm climates, however, it may be too irritating to the skin. The body should be uniformly covered: trunk, arms, and legs, but the abdomen and the legs specially require to be kept warm. Observant and careful persons should dress according to the weather: those who must have a simple rule and change with the almanack should remember that the six coldest months are from November to April inclusive, and that in October and November, April and May, we may have summer one day and winter the next. "Don't cast a clout till May is out."

It is well for strong people to accustom themselves to the lightest clothing compatible with comfort and safety, and not to "muffle up"

unnecessarily. Underclothings should never be worn day and night. If a vest is required at night, it should be a separate one to that worn by day.

All garments should be loose, allowing free play to the muscles and joints. The wearing of corsets must be regarded as sacrificing health to fashion. Shoes and boots should be made the shape of the foot, and the heel should be wide and but little thicker than the sole.

(3) *Employment* is essential to health, but many occupations are unhealthy. The most healthy are those carried on out of doors, as fishing and agriculture. The most injurious are the various branches of the liquor trade, those in which there is great temptation to drink, as cabdriving, and certain trades in which an irritating or poisonous dust is produced, as metal filing, lead working, and cutlery (see DANGEROUS TRADES).

It is the women of the wealthier classes who chiefly suffer from unemployment, which gives rise to the various forms of hysteria and neurasthenia.

(4) *Habits*: (a) *Air*. One of the most important habits is that of opening the windows before retiring to rest. Ample supply of air is necessary in the office, the workshop, and the living room, but this may be beyond the control of any one individual (see OVERCROWDING); but most persons can secure a wide open window in their sleeping room. Curtains and blinds should not be allowed to interfere with the free entry of air. As much time should be spent in the open air as possible.

(b) A cold bath or cold sponge every morning is a bracing tonic if carried out with such rapidity that a good glow is felt after it. It should be followed by brisk rubbing with a rough towel. On the other hand, long exposure to cold water in the sea or swimming bath is a common cause of illness or even of sudden

death. Children who cannot swim should only stay in the water a few minutes. A hot bath should be taken once or twice a week for cleansing purposes.

(c) *Exercise.* In order that the heart, lungs, digestion, and excretory organs should be kept in good working order, the body should every day perform a certain amount of physical work. The equivalent of a walk of eight miles has been given as a standard for an adult. Those whose occupation is sedentary should take physical exercise with this object. Walking in hilly country is excellent exercise. Bicycling is better on the level. Rowing is better still, as it exercises nearly all the muscles of the body. Golf is excellent for elderly persons, cricket and lawn tennis for young persons. Such games as football and hockey are only suited for the strong. They are liable to injure delicate persons, who, only playing once a week, never get into training. Outdoor recreation should always be chosen if possible, but in wet weather and under other conditions gymnastics and physical exercises can be practised with advantage (see NATIONAL PHYSICAL RECREATION SOCIETY). The most important aim of exercise is the expansion of the lungs, and deep breathing is by itself a most salutary practice. (See also PHYSICAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS.)

(d) *Sleep.* No general rule can be given as to length of sleep. Most adult persons are probably better for having at least eight hours in bed, though many can do with much less, and a few may require more. Young persons should have much more; those under ten require eleven hours, and those under nineteen, nine. Healthy persons should sleep all the time they are in bed, *i.e.*, they should, as a rule, get up when they wake. Everyone (single or married) should have his

or her own separate bed. A spring mattress is the best, and no more bed clothes than the coldness of the weather demands. Early hours are healthy and economical.

(5) *Attention to the Teeth and Bowels.* Though external cleanliness is important, health requires at least equal attention to be given to cleansing the mouth and removal of waste materials from the alimentary canal. Neglect of the teeth means decay, neuralgia, indigestion, and sometimes a form of blood poisoning. (See also TEETH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.) The teeth should be cleansed twice a day at least, and always after the last food taken at night. A hard brush and some prepared chalk should be used, and every accessible part of the teeth and gums should be rubbed. Directions are given under "Diet" as to self-cleansing food. In case proper precautions have not been taken and decay has commenced, it is wise to consult the dentist at least every year. Young persons whose second teeth are coming, *i.e.*, from six years of age, should have their teeth examined twice a year.

A regular daily action of the bowels helps greatly to keep the digestive organs in a healthy condition, and neglect of this function is perhaps the commonest cause of indigestion, headaches, mental depression and irritability, and often produces more serious illnesses. There will seldom be need of medicine if a habit is formed from the earliest years of visiting the water closet at a fixed time daily. But it is better to take aperient medicine if no action can be obtained without it.

Conclusion. Professor Osler, of Oxford, sums up his advice as to how to be healthy as follows:—

(1) No alcohol; (2) less tobacco; (3) less tea and coffee; (4) good, plain food; (5) cleanliness; (6) plenty of fresh air; (7) plenty of hard work.

(For further information, *The Health of the State*, Dr. Newman; *Practical Domestic Hygiene*, Nottor & Firth, 1899, and *Report of Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration*, 1904; *Diet and Food* Haig, 1904; *Food and the Principles of Dietetics*, Hutchinson, D., 1902.)

Personal Service Association.—Many social workers have realised that the distribution of relief is one of the least satisfactory methods of helping those in less favoured circumstances to themselves. In fact, haphazard giving without personal interest is often directly harmful. The personal contact without the bestowal of money or material assistance is gradually receiving recognition as one of the chief needs for the solution of social problems. The League of the Friends of the Poor (see CHURCH ARMY) give expression to this principle by attaching a "friend" to the families who are in distress. The Personal Service Association was formed in 1908 with a similar aim. It seeks "by placing individuals in direct touch with one another, to afford members of all classes opportunities of mutual helpfulness and understanding." The helpers are asked to give personal service, not money, and to visit regularly a family with which they are placed into communication by the Association, co-operating with existing agencies in making the selection. The helpers are grouped under district heads, who are experienced social workers. The aim of the Association is to supplement the work of the charitable agencies in London by establishing a personal relationship based on sympathy and friendship. The existence of the Association and similar bodies is due to the segregation of sections of one type of the community into separate areas, and may do something to mitigate an evil which may be counteracted on a larger scale by garden cities (*q.v.*)

and other forms of systematic housing and town planning (*q.v.*).

Petitions to the King.—(See HOME OFFICE.)

Photo-process Work.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Photography.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Phthisis.—(See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM, PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION, and SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.)

Physical Training in Schools.—(See also HYGIENE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.) The Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland), 1903, and the Inter-Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration, 1904, drew attention to the poor physique of many children in the public elementary schools (*q.v.*), and caused the Board of Education (*q.v.*) to issue an official syllabus of exercises in 1904. Increasing interest has been directed to the subject, and in 1909 the Board issued a revised edition of the syllabus, drawing special attention to the value of physical exercises as a beneficial influence on general nutrition and development (see PERSONAL HEALTH), as a corrective against the effects of bad physical environment and as a moral and intellectual influence. Keeping all these objects in view, the exercises have been modelled on the Swedish system, modified to decrease the risk of strain to children somewhat physically unfit, and include exercises in correct breathing, dancing-steps, games, and skipping exercises. Fire drill is also directed to be practised in all schools where any class-rooms are higher than the ground floor. Swimming and life-saving lessons are now a recognised part of the curriculum (see ARTIFICIAL RESPIRATION, ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY and ROYAL LIFE SAVING SOCIETY). For older children the Board of Education sanctions a period occupied during the school

hours in properly organised games, under competent supervision and instruction, the period to be confined to one afternoon each week, to be not less than half an hour or more than two hours, exclusive of the time spent in going or returning from the playing-field." This scheme has been specially promoted to encourage *esprit de corps*, initiative and power of organisation and co-operation among the less fortunately situated children. The subject of physical exercises is now included in the examination for students leaving training colleges, and a staff of inspectors of physical training (two men and two women) has been established at the Board of Education.

Piano Tuning.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Places of Detention.—(See REMAND HOMES.)

Plate Glass Manufacture.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Play Centres.—(See EVENING PLAY CENTRES.)

Playing Fields.—(See LONDON PLAYING FIELDS SOCIETY.)

Pledged Property.—(See PAWN-BROKERS.)

Plural Votes.—(See FRANCHISE.)

Police Authorities.—(See also ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.) In the City of London these are the common council (*q.v.*); in the Metropolitan Police District ("county" of London and some areas outside), the Home Secretary. Elsewhere, out of London, they are standing joint committees consisting of county councillors and county justices and watch committees (*i.e.*, committees of the borough councils). The central authority is the Home Office (*q.v.*).

Police Court Missionaries.—For some years the temperance societies and other home missionary organisations have supported workers attached to the police courts, who have been willing to render assistance to applicants or

parties before the magistrate. Since the passing of the Probation of Offenders Act in 1907 these workers have frequently been appointed to be probation officers (*q.v.*) thus obtaining new powers and influence, in addition to the force of moral suasion, from the authority of the law. They are thus continuing their work as before, but with some additional official recognition. Thus voluntary effort has led the way which the State has followed.

Police Medal, King's.—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.)

Police and Social Workers.—(See also ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.) It is the duty of the police, speaking generally: (1) To prevent breaches of the law, (2) to preserve order in the streets, and (3) to bring to justice offenders against the law. In regard to these duties, the social worker has the same—and no more than the same—claim on the police for assistance as the ordinary member of the public.

It would be impossible to set out in detail the exact powers of arrest or interference which the police possess, and the safest course for a worker is to consult the police in any particular case, informing them concisely and clearly of the facts. Even in cases where there is no legal power of interference, it is possible that the police may feel themselves able to give an informal word of warning. It would, however, be advisable for anyone who is interested in work among children to obtain a copy of the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), and to familiarise himself with the duties in regard to children imposed on the police.

Beyond these duties, however, there is a wide field in which they may be able to assist or receive assistance from a worker. The police, in the course of their duties, are necessarily brought into contact with cases of neglect, distress,

etc., which need philanthropic assistance. It should be clearly remembered that philanthropy is no part of the duties of the police. Whether and to what extent they do, in fact, engage in preventive or rescue work (*q.v.*) of a semi-philanthropic nature beyond the sphere of their actual duties, must be discovered by inquiry in the district. The worker should ascertain by any means in his power (*e.g.*, by interviews with responsible officers or by communication with recognised societies at work in the district for dealing with distress in its various forms) what the general attitude of the police is. A practical point to remember is that, if a worker desires to do any particular branch of work, it will probably be better that he should co-operate with any agency known to the police, rather than approach them as an individual of whom they know nothing. The more that social work is organised, the better; and naturally the police will be more ready to welcome a worker who is associated with a responsible society. In rescue work, for example, it would be better to work with and through a local vigilance society. In the Metropolitan Police District there are recognised societies of this kind, who co-operate with the police. One large field of work open to the worker is the probation of offenders (see PROBATION OFFICERS). If any individual commits an offence, and a court is satisfied of his guilt, the court has power to release him on probation, *i.e.*, to say that for a given period (generally twelve months, but never exceeding three years) he shall be under the friendly supervision of a probation officer.

If a worker, therefore, is interested in any particular offender, he may ask the court not to send the offender to prison, but to hand him over to the worker's care; the court has full discretion in the

choice of probation officer, and may be able, in suitable cases, to avail itself of the assistance of a volunteer. It would be well in a case of this sort for the worker, in good time, to interview or write to the clerk to the court, or the police court missionary (*q.v.*), or the police, stating his interest in the case and what he is prepared to do, if the court thinks fit in its discretion to release the offender on probation. Once the worker became known to the police, they would very likely draw his attention to cases coming before the courts in which he could help.

The worker should cultivate friendly relations with the police, always remembering that their hands are full of work. Policemen, in the ordinary course of their duties, are often asked for help or assistance (*e.g.*, by friendless, homeless, and penniless men and women, or come across deserted children); and the ordinary London constable, for example, is a mine of information as to shelters, refuges, hospitals, etc., etc., in his district. No doubt if a constable knew any responsible social worker who would help in any class of case, he might be able to refer his applicant to the worker. The efficient social worker is none too common, and it should not be expected that the constable who is ready to help people outside the scope of his ordinary duties is any more common; but that there does exist a large number of men in all grades of the police force who will do something for their less fortunate brothers and sisters is beyond doubt.

Pollution of the Atmosphere.—(See SMOKE NUISANCE.)

Polytechnics.—The origin and, in a great measure, the success of polytechnics are inseparably associated with the name of the late Mr. Quintin Hogg. In 1881 he acquired the lease of a building in Regent Street, which had been

known as the Polytechnic, for the purposes of a working lads' institute. The aim of the founder was expressed in the words: "What we wanted to develop our institute into was a place which should recognise that God had given man more than one side to his character, and where we could gratify any reasonable taste, whether athletic, intellectual, spiritual, or social." The manner in which that aim has been carried out may be described in the words of Mr. Sidney Webb: "The typical London Polytechnic is an institution, under public management, for the provision of instruction, recreation, and social intercourse for young men and women of the wage-earning and 'lower middle' classes. It is an organisation of considerable magnitude, having several thousands of members or students, the vast majority of whom are between the ages of seventeen and twenty-five." Its governing body consisting of from ten to twenty members appointed by various public authorities, who subsidise the work, expend a large income derived from those sources and the fees paid by the students. "The London Polytechnic Institute," he continues, "is remarkable, if not unique, in its express and deliberate combination of social intercourse, recreation, and instruction. It is not a place of amusement, with a few educational classes added; nor is it an educational institution with some provision for the students' recreation. The social intercourse of its members is as much its object as their recreation or their instruction; and all three purposes are entitled to equal attention from its governing body, and to an adequate share of its endowment. . . . Each Polytechnic institute is an independent organisation, not subject to control by any government department or other authority, and free, within the

limits of its own trust-deed or other constitutional document, to move in whatever direction may be determined on by its governing body" (*Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, published by the Education Department, vol. ii). Upon its recreative side the Polytechnic provides for every possible form of relaxation, including even the organisation of tours in foreign countries. The educational work comprises classes for instruction in various trades, domestic economy (*q.v.*), technical and art subjects, besides the classes in science, languages, and the humanities generally. The position of the polytechnics in the educational system of the Metropolis cannot be defined with precision, but the opinions of some of the highest authorities on the subject may be found in a volume of *Minutes of Evidence* (July, 1909-April, 1910), given before the Royal Commission on University Education in London.

Poor Law Authorities.—The Poor Law Authorities of England and Wales are the boards of guardians (*q.v.*), and some joint authorities (boards of managers and joint committees of guardians), the most important being the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*). There are 654 boards of guardians, including 10 constituted for out-relief (*q.v.*) purposes only, and acting for areas representing only four unions for other purposes. Other Poor Law Authorities number 14. Overseers (*q.v.*) have the power of giving relief (out-door) in cases of sudden and urgent necessity; but the amount of the relief so given is negligible.

Poor Law Children.—(See CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.)

Poor Law Dispensaries.—(See MEDICAL RELIEF.)

Poor Law Examinations Board.—This Board consists of representatives of the Association of Poor Law Unions, the Central Committee

of Poor Law Conferences, the Universities of Birmingham and Liverpool, the School of Sociology and Social Economics (*q.v.*), and the National Poor Law Officers' Association. It was formed in 1910 to take over from the School of Sociology the work of providing examinations and granting certificates in Poor Law subjects connected with the professional duties of the officers concerned. Up to the present the examinations have dealt almost entirely with the duties of relieving officers (*q.v.*), and since their institution in 1906, 147 certificates have been granted. Later on it is hoped to extend the work to other branches of the service.

Poor Law, History of the.—(See also POOR LAW REFORM.) The famous Poor Law Act of Elizabeth (43 Eliz. cap. 2) is by many regarded as the date of the birth of our English Poor Law. The relief of the destitute poor has, however, a far older origin, and a reference to Horne's *Mirror*, a production of about the time of Edward II, recites that the kings before the Conquest had laid down regulations that clergy and parishioners should take such steps as would ensure that "no one should die from lack of sustenance."

Legislation in the Tudor period was mainly concerned in the prevention and regulation of begging.

By various legislative enactments in the reigns of Henry VII, Henry VIII, and Edward VI, the destitute were precluded from begging at large, and their operations limited to certain defined districts.

Parishes and hamlets were charged with the duty of seeing that the poor were supplied with sufficient charitable and voluntary alms as would sustain them and render unnecessary any open show of begging. Collections were to be taken on Sundays in the parish churches for this purpose, and the

minister was directed after the Gospel on Sunday to exhort his people to give liberally to this object.

It is interesting to note that if the exhortation of the minister did not produce the desired effect, the recalcitrant individual could be summoned before the bishop, and if his efforts to induce adequate liberality were of no effect, he could bind the individual over to appear before the justices in session, and if persuasive measures were still unsuccessful, then they (the justices) were to assess him in what amount they thought reasonable towards the relief of the poor,—an interesting example of the easy transition from voluntary to State aid. These various enactments are fully dealt with by Dr. Burn in his well-known *History of Poor Law*, to which reference can be made for much detailed and important information relating to this period.

The Poor Law Act of Elizabeth. Like many of our Acts of Parliament, the Statute of 1601 was passed as a temporary measure to deal with the evils of pauperism and unemployment (*q.v.*) which, in Tudor England, existed largely owing to the enclosing of common lands and the turning into pasture of land formerly used for tillage, "Whereby husbandrie, which is one of the greatest commodities of this realm, is greatly decayed."

The Act provided *inter alia* :—

(1) For setting to work the children of all such whose parents shall not by the said churchwardens and overseers, or the greater part of them, be thought able to keep and maintain their children.

(2) For setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them, use no ordinary or daily trade of life to get their living by ;

(3) To raise weekly or otherwise by taxation of every inhabitant . . . a convenient stock of flax, hemp,

wool, thread, iron, and other ware and stuff, to set the poor on work.

(4) To raise competent sums of money for and towards the necessary relief of the lame, impotent, old, blind, and such other among them being poor and not able to work.

(5) For the putting out of such children to be apprentices.

In the reign of Charles I the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth was made perpetual. Legislation in the eighteenth century was of a tentative and experimental character, and calls for no detailed reference in this brief retrospect. The next landmark in the history of our national Poor Law system was *The Poor Law Commission of 1832*. This Commission consisted of the Bishops of London and Chester, with seven other Commissioners. It was appointed to inquire into the practical operation of the laws for the relief of the poor in England and Wales, and to report as to what beneficial amendments or additions could be made thereto.

The investigation was thorough and complete. Assistant commissioners were appointed who visited in urban and rural districts all over the country, and reported the practices which they found to prevail, the varying methods of relief, and the results attained.

In addition, questions to which replies were invited were circulated throughout the country, and we are told that the evidence was "derived from many thousand witnesses, of every rank and every profession and employment."

The Commissioners condemned unhesitatingly the administration of the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth, and found that the fund available under that statute "is applied to purposes opposed to the letter, and still more to the spirit of that law, and destructive to the morals of the most numerous class and to the welfare of all."

The Commissioners maintained that the evils they found to exist were not so much due to the spirit or real intention of existing Acts of Parliament, but rather to a misinterpretation of their objects and meaning; they set themselves, therefore, to the manufacture of new machinery and methods of administration which found expression in the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834. Three Commissioners were appointed to carry the Act into operation, and they were given power to issue rules, orders, and regulations for the management of the poor and for the guidance and control of all guardians, vestries, and parish officers in connection with Poor Law matters, an interesting anticipation of the powers many years afterwards entrusted to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*).

Reference to the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834 will show that its provisions only carried into effect the real spirit of the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth, which spirit had been violated in its administration.

The fundamental principles of the Commissioners of 1832 were:—

(1) That able-bodied persons and their families should only be afforded relief in a well-regulated workhouse.

(2) That the lot of the able-bodied should be made less eligible than that of the independent labourer outside.

The doctrine of "less-eligibility" finds many supporters to-day, and it is one that requires very careful scrutiny and examination before it can be lightly dismissed, even though it should appear that a Poor Law administered on such a principle would merely be deterrent in its effect and confined to the relief of destitution in too narrow a sense.

Poor Law Reform.—(See also POOR LAW, HISTORY OF THE, and UNEMPLOYMENT.) The Report of

the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress, published in 1909, marks a very important epoch in the history of the English Poor Law, which has covered a period of no less than three centuries.

The Commission was appointed by royal warrant on December 4, 1905.

The reference of the Commission included two subjects:—

(a) The Poor Law.

(b) Methods of meeting distress outside the Poor Law.

The immense scope of the investigation is obvious, and it is, therefore, not surprising that 209 meetings of the Commission were held, 159 of which were occupied in hearing the evidence of 452 witnesses, whose replies to questions exceeded 100,000 in number, while written statements were received from about 900 other persons who were not examined orally.

The Report of the Commission in 1834 may be said to have laid down as an axiom that "the situation of the able-bodied pauper (*q.v.*) should be really or apparently less eligible than the situation of the independent labourer," or, in other words, that the aim of all Poor Law legislation should be to foster the instincts of independence and self-maintenance amongst those assisted. This principle is accepted practically without question in the Majority Report of the present Commission. The distinction between poverty and pauperism, the poverty that is honourable, the pauperism that is servile and degrading, is emphasized and insisted upon by the Majority throughout their report.

It may now be useful to indicate the defects in our existing Poor Law system for which a remedy is required.

The most obvious of these defects are:—

(1) The inadequacy of existing

Poor Law areas to meet the growing requirements of the population, which has resulted in many of the boards of guardians becoming unwieldy in size.

(2) The marked deterioration in Poor Law administration, due in a large measure to the isolated position of the work in relation to other branches of local government. This is abundantly evidenced by the widespread reluctance of capable and leading citizens to stand for election as guardians, and the apathy of the electorate when called upon to elect guardians.

In London, at the elections of guardians in 1909, only 21·8 per cent. of those qualified to vote exercised the franchise, as opposed to 84·3 per cent. at the Parliamentary election in January, 1910; 51 per cent. at the County Council election in March, 1910; and 50·8 per cent. at the Borough Council elections in the same year.

(3) The lack of uniformity in the application of the principles of administration, and of any control or continuity of policy on the part of the central authority.

(4) The lack of any adequate discrimination in dealing with applicants.

(5) The abuse of outdoor relief (*q.v.*), as shown by the tendency of guardians to favour their constituents in its distribution.

(6) The absence of co-operation between the Poor Law and charitable agencies.

(7) The alarming rise in expenditure, which, in the main, has not been accompanied by a corresponding increase in efficiency.

(8) The absolute failure of the general or mixed workhouse as a test for the able-bodied (see ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS); and the collection in one institution of all classes with little or no classification (*q.v.*), and with no attempt at friendly or restorative help.

Summary of the Proposals of the Majority Report. (1) The title of Public Assistance to take the place of Poor Law, and the establishment of a new local authority to be known as the Public Assistance Authority, with local committees to be designated Public Assistance Committees. The term "destitute" now officially used to describe those entitled to relief to be discontinued, and the term "necessitous" to take its place.

(2) The "union" as an area of administration, which took the place of the "parish" after the Report of 1834, in turn to be supplanted by a county and county borough unit of administration; and the cost of Public Assistance, so far as its incidence remain local, to be borne by a county or county borough rate.

(3) The Public Assistance Authority to be a statutory committee of the county or county borough council, constituted: (a) As regards one moiety of its members, by appointment by the parent council: the persons so appointed *may* be persons who are members of the council; (b) the other moiety of members to be appointed by the council from outside their own number, and to consist of persons experienced in the local administration of Public Assistance or cognate subjects; (c) the actual number of members of any Public Assistance Authority to be determined by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) women being eligible under either head (a) or (b); (d) the same scheme to apply to London with necessary and minor modifications.

(4) The Public Assistance Authority to set up and supervise Public Assistance Committees for investigating and deciding applications for assistance within existing union areas, such committees to include persons nominated by urban and rural district councils (*q.v.*) and

where they have been formed, by the voluntary aid committees. (The Commissioners recommend that these committees should be established in each Public Assistance area, and should consist of trustees of endowed charities (*q.v.*), members of registered voluntary charities, some members of the Public Assistance Authority, clergy and ministers, members of friendly societies (*q.v.*), and others.

(5) An increase in the status and powers of the Local Government Board, involving closer control of, and co-operation with, the local public assistance authorities.

(6) The abolition of the general and mixed workhouse, and the establishment of separate institutions for (a) children, (b) aged and infirm, (c) sick, (d) able-bodied men, (e) able-bodied women (see ABLE-BODIED PAUPERS), (f) vagrants (*q.v.*), and (g) feeble-minded and epileptics (*q.v.*).

(7) Outdoor relief (*q.v.*) only to be given under the strictest supervision, after most thorough inquiry and investigation, and to be adequate for the needs of those to whom it is given.

(8) That the Charity Commission be attached to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), and its duties enlarged.

(9) The establishment of invalidity insurance, to meet the case of persons entirely incapacitated from wage earning. The financial cost to be met, partly by contributions from employers, partly by contributions from employees, and partly by a subsidy from the State.

(10) That in all matters affecting medical relief (*q.v.*), there should in future be systematic co-operation, under definite regulations, between Public Assistance authorities, public health and education authorities, and voluntary provident medical institutions.

(11) The establishment of a

national system of labour exchanges. (See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

(12) That education in public elementary schools (*q.v.*) should be of a more practical nature.

(13) The establishment of unemployment insurance (see WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD).

(14) The extension of labour colonies.

(15) Detention colonies, under the Home Office (*q.v.*), for those who can, but neglect to, maintain themselves or their families.

(16) Co-operation between Public Assistance authorities and established emigration agencies.

(17) The repeal of the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905, so soon as the contemplated system of Public Assistance has come into effect.

In a separate Memorandum Mr. T. Hancock Nunn advocated an alternative constitution for the future Public Assistance Authorities and Committees, by connecting organically statutory and voluntary bodies in each area. He would further preserve public representative control by providing that a majority of every Public Assistance Authority should be appointed from members of the county or county borough council. It will be remembered that in the Majority Report the new Public Assistance Authority might quite possibly consist entirely of outside persons in no way responsible to or under the control of the electors. In support of his proposals, Mr. Nunn describes the constitution and operations of the successful Council of Social Welfare (*q.v.*) on these lines, which has existed in the borough of Hampstead for some years.

The importance and practicability of Mr. Nunn's suggestions have recently received striking confirmation by the success that has attended the formation of "The Social Welfare Association (*q.v.*) for

London," which very largely is designed to carry out the suggestions of his memorandum.

The Minority Report. Four members of the Commission signed the Minority Report.

The authorship of this report has been commonly attributed to Mr. and Mrs. Webb, and there is little doubt that these well-known and distinguished sociologists are, in the main, responsible for a report, to the propagation of the principles of which they have, since its publication, devoted untiring zeal and unquestioned ability.

"The National Committee to Promote the Break-up of the Poor Law" now known as the National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution, was formed by them shortly after the Report of the Commission, and this committee has ever since, by means of lectures and public meetings, by an unremitting Press agitation and by an energetic Parliamentary campaign, advocated the fundamental principle of the Minority Report, which is: "That a systematic crusade against destitution in all its forms be set on foot: against the destitution caused by unemployment, the destitution caused by old age, the destitution caused by feeble-mindedness and lunacy, the destitution caused by ill-health and disease, and the destitution caused by neglected infancy and neglected childhood."

The break-up of the Poor Law, it is contended, should follow, or, in other words, that there should be no longer a separate Poor Law authority but that every branch of Local Government administration should be charged with the duty of attending to its own particular department of assistance.

For example, they would entrust the whole of the public provision for children of school age (not being sick or mentally defective) to the local education authorities, under

the supervision of the Board of Education (*q.v.*).

All future medical relief (*q.v.*) should be entrusted to the public health authorities in every district. The aged should be dealt with by the Pensions Committee, and where prematurely incapacitated or helpless, by the public health authorities; and the mentally defective of all grades and ages by the asylums committees.

Each one of these various authorities to be empowered and required "to search out" within their districts candidates for their particular form of public assistance, and to apply the appropriate treatment, either in their own homes or in suitable institutions.

The most important of the further recommendations contained in the Minority Report are as follow:—

(1) That all existing legislation, so far as it relates exclusively to poor relief should be repealed, with the exception of the famous Poor Law Act of Elizabeth (43 Eliz. cap. 2). (See POOR LAW, HISTORY OF.)

(2) That the property, powers, and duties of all existing destitution authorities should be transferred to the county and county borough councils, and administered by their present committees.

(3) The appointment in every county and county borough of a new public official to be known as Registrar of Public Assistance, who would be charged with the duties of (a) keeping a public register of all cases in receipt of Public Assistance; (b) assessing and recovering, where there is evidence of ability to pay, all charges hereafter to be made for particular forms of relief or treatment; (c) sanctioning the grants of home aliment (outdoor relief (*q.v.*)).

(4) That the age for national old age pensions (see PENSIONS IN OLD

AGE) should be reduced to sixty-five, if not to sixty, and that local authorities (*q.v.*) should be empowered to grant out of the rates pensions to persons of decent life, not being less than sixty years of age, who are not eligible for a national pension.

(5) That a new national authority be empowered, and required to search out all able-bodied persons destitute of employment; to take the necessary steps both to diminish as far as practicable, the social disease of unemployment (*q.v.*), and to supply proper maintenance and training for those who are unemployed and unprovided for. The able-bodied and the unemployed to be removed once for all from any connection with local authorities dealing with the children, the sick, the aged and infirm, and the mentally defective.

(6) That any provision dealing with unemployment should be placed under the control of a minister responsible to Parliament, to be designated the Minister for Labour.

(7) That the Ministry for Labour should include six distinct and separately organised divisions, viz. :—

(a) The National Labour Exchange.

(b) The Trade Insurance Division.

(c) The Maintenance and Training Division.

(d) The Industrial Regulation Division.

(e) The Emigration and Immigration Division.

(f) The Statistical Division.

(8) In order to meet cyclical depression of trade, the Government should undertake, as far as practicable, the regularisation of the national demand for labour, providing for this purpose a sum of £4,000,000 per annum to be employed on public works, to be executed with the best available

labour at standard rates, engaged in the ordinary way. This work to be arranged on a ten years' programme, and the £40,000,000 available to be exclusively used in the lean years of the trade cycle during each decade. That included in this work should be schemes of afforestation (*q.v.*), coast protection, and land reclamation (*q.v.*).

(9) That the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905 should be continued in force until a more adequate scheme of dealing with unemployment has been placed upon the statute book.

The Two Reports Contrasted. As far as the defects of our existing Poor Law and its administration are concerned both reports are substantially in agreement.

The general or mixed workhouse, the lack of curative and restorative treatment, the abuses connected with the distribution of outdoor relief (*q.v.*), the entire lack of proper classification (*q.v.*), the absence of any co-operation between charitable agencies and the Poor Law, are all Condemned by both Majority and Minority alike.

Even when remedies for these evils have to be put forward, we find unanimity upon such important points of principle as specialised institutions for the sick, the aged, the children, and the mentally defective; the linking together of Public Assistance and voluntary charitable agencies; the establishment of a national system of Labour Exchanges; some system of workmen's insurance (see WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD); labour colonies for the unemployed; and penal detention colonies for the unemployable.

The real and fundamental difference between the two reports only becomes apparent when their respective proposals for a new machinery and organisation to take the place of the old are considered.

The authority to take the place of the present boards of guardians is provided in the Majority report by a combination of elected members of county and county borough councils with co-opted members of experience and repute. Powers are given to this authority to deal appropriately with every applicant according to his or her requirements, while the enlarged area over which control would be exercised would afford special opportunities for classification by institutions instead of *in* institutions. Alongside this new authority, charitable agencies and social workers are to work hand in hand with the public authority, but in a separate sphere of action, and their expenditure must be found from voluntary and not State or rate-aided sources.

The Majority contend that there would be thus one authority in each district with power to dispense relief from public funds, and that by their plan, at a minimum of cost, effective machinery, designed for the help, prevention, care, and consideration of applicants for assistance would be established in every district throughout the country.

The weak point in the constitution of the Majority's new authority is without doubt the possibility of an entire absence of popular representative control, to which reference has already been made in connection with Mr. T. Hancock Nunn's memorandum.

The Minority advance two main objections to the proposals of the Majority. They urge (*a*) that any authority primarily called into being for the relief of the destitute cannot discharge effectively the further duties required in connection with the education of children, medical relief (*q.v.*), or provision for the able-bodied and unemployed; (*b*) that any authority primarily established to deal with the destitute poor must of necessity have a

repellent and deterrent effect upon those who are in need of assistance.

Under the counter proposals of the Minority, their authority will have to search out and enforce relief upon all whose surroundings are not up to the standard of the particular authority in their district.

The new Registrar of Public Assistance will be the official upon whose shoulders the main responsibility for all this work will fall. The County Council will grant the assistance, and the Registrar will have to endeavour to recover its cost.

The inherent weakness of the scheme is the obvious disinclination of any popularly elected body to be placed under the domination of any individual, particularly when that individual would be one of its own officials.

All Public Assistance under the scheme of the Minority is to be imposed on, rather than solicited by, the applicant. Where compulsion is thus employed, the services rendered must necessarily be largely gratuitous. The Majority contend, with some truth, that "the class that avails itself of a gratuitous public service naturally tends to grow, and, in proportion as this class increases in numbers, the prejudice against using the service will diminish in intensity; each beneficiary recruits several others from among his friends, and what was at first an arithmetical, soon becomes a geometrical, progression in numbers, till none but the rich or the eccentric will continue to provide, at their own expense, benefits which are provided freely by the State for the vast majority of their neighbours" (Majority Report—England and Wales—Part V, par. 201).

Under the proposals of the Majority, there being only one authority, a family in distress will be dealt with as a whole. The

Minority proposals would seem in a large number of cases to involve the sending away of individual members of a family to be treated by various committees, with the consequent danger of the break-up of family life.

The Minority seek to abolish destitution and eradicate pauperism; the Majority contend that under their (the Minority's) proposed system a considerable proportion of the population will be under official surveillance from the cradle to the grave, and that, so far from abolishing pauperism and dependence, those heaven-sent activities of self-reliance, mutual provident effort and co-operation, which in the past have made our nation great, glorious, and free, will be seriously curtailed, if not entirely destroyed.

Poor Law Relief.—(See CASE PAPER SYSTEM, CASUAL WARDS, CLASSIFICATION OF PAUPERS, INDOOR RELIEF, MEDICAL RELIEF, OUTDOOR RELIEF, POOR LAW RELIEF COMMITTEES, RELIEVING OFFICERS, and WORKHOUSES.)

Poor Law Relief Committees.—(See also INDOOR RELIEF and RECOVERY OF THE COST OF RELIEF.) The practice obtaining in many unions is for the Board every year to appoint relief committees responsible for the actual distribution of relief and the consideration of applications for relief in the particular districts for which they may be appointed. The size of the unions and the area covered often necessitates this, and it is in some unions the custom to appoint the members of the Board elected for particular districts or wards as the relief committee for that particular portion of the union. In other unions it is the rule that no guardian shall sit on the particular committee which deals with cases from the district which he represents. The reason for this is obvious, as it

is extremely difficult to eliminate the personal element and to prevent favouritism or likes and dislikes from entering into the consideration of a particular case. It is recorded that the adoption of the latter rule in one union led to an almost immediate reduction in the cost of outdoor relief (*q.v.*) of about £70 per week.

It is generally understood, however, that every member of the Board is entitled to attend all the meetings of the relief committees, and that the ultimate responsibility of the relief rests upon the whole Board, to whom the various relief committees' actions should be reported. At each meeting of the committee, the relieving officer (*q.v.*) reports all applications, together with particulars, which will enable the committee to come to a decision and the application and report book or the case paper (see CASE PAPER SYSTEM) is filled in and signed by the chairman, who enters the order of the committee. The officer reports also what action he has taken in the cases with which he has dealt since the last meeting of the committee, and reports orders of admission to workhouse infirmary or schools, removal of lunatics (*q.v.*) or medical relief (*q.v.*) orders given. It is important that the chairman should keep a watchful eye on individual cases, and ascertain that the orders of the committee are carried out, and it is essential that the advice of the officer, given nearly always with first hand knowledge of the case, should be carefully weighed; and, on the other hand, that any signs of partiality or deviation from the settled policy of the Board with regard to relief, or any laxity in administering that policy should be noted and dealt with by the committee.

District relief committees are authorised under Section 7 of the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1842,

and all recommendations of the committee have to be entered by the clerk to the guardians in the relief order book. The guardians, acting as a Board, have the power to rescind or alter any order of a relief committee, and to determine as to the continuation or cessation of any allowance of relief given by order of the relief committee. No order of a relief committee is valid unless a majority of the members present concur in the relief, and three members at least must be present when the order is made.

Poor Law Schools.—(See ASSOCIATION FOR BEFRIENDING BOYS, CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW and STATE CHILDREN ASSOCIATION.)

Poor Man's Lawyers.—Attached to settlements (*q.v.*) and other similar philanthropic institutions, both in London and the provinces, are often one or more lawyers, either barristers or solicitors, who are willing to give advice voluntarily to applicants from the neighbourhood. They generally have a working agreement with one or more firms of solicitors, so that any matter which requires to be brought before a judicial tribunal may receive adequate attention. But a great deal of the work done by the poor man's lawyer, as the voluntary worker is called, is of an advisory character, involving a knowledge of human character rather than of law. Just as the villager was accustomed to go to the parson to draw up his will, settle his matrimonial affairs, and adjust his differences, so the urban dweller avails himself of the opportunity afforded, generally weekly, to obtain assistance from the poor man's lawyer. In some places where the work has been done regularly for some time, the poor man's lawyer attains a position of considerable influence, and parties will consent to submit their disputes to his arbitration and voluntarily abide by his decision.

The State has made some arrangements to assist poor people who come before the courts. In civil actions anyone who does not possess more than £25 may sue *in forma pauperis*. The pauper litigant thus obtains the gratuitous assistance of a solicitor, and, if necessary, counsel for the purpose of proceedings either in the county court or high court.

The prisoner in a criminal action may be assisted in accordance with the Poor Prisoners' Defence Act, passed in 1903. If he is without means and can satisfy the judge that he has a legal defence, the judge may certify that the prisoner should have professional aid, entitling him to a solicitor and counsel, whose fees will be paid by the Treasury.

Poor Men's Hotels.—(See MODEL LODGING HOUSES.)

Poor Prisoners' Defence.—(See POOR MAN'S LAWYER.)

Portmanteau Making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Post Office.—(See CIVIL SERVICE FOR FEMALES AND CIVIL SERVICE FOR MALES.)

Post Office Savings Bank.—(See THRIFT.)

Preferential Dealing.—This is a method for adoption by the consumer of checking the abuses of "sweating"—excessively low wages, long hours of work, or unhealthy conditions (see SWEATED INDUSTRIES)—which are the inevitable outcome of unregulated competition. (See also TRADE BOARDS.) It may be defined as the practice of purchasing goods only from tradesmen who observe the standard regulations for their respective trades. This is based on the principle that the consumers of goods—*i.e.*, people who buy things for themselves, whether as public bodies or as private persons—are ultimately responsible for the conditions under which those goods are made and sold, and should,

therefore, use all their influence to secure proper wages and reasonable conditions for the workpeople engaged.

Thus, for example, all Government contracts are now subject to the "Fair Wages Resolution" passed by the House of Commons in 1891, which requires the payment of current wages for competent workmen; and a large number of municipalities and other public bodies have adopted a similar policy. It should be noted that in most cases the wages are not specified in the contracts, but generally represent a mutual agreement between the associations of employers and workmen in each trade (see also TRADE BOARDS).

It is, of course, impossible for the individual consumer to investigate industrial conditions for himself, but he can make use of existing organisations. For example, in some towns the local trades council publishes a list of firms which observe the standard regulations for each trade. These are "white lists"—*i.e.*, which recommend certain firms for specific reasons, and not "black lists," which would be illegal, however accurate. The standards, too, are not necessarily permanent, but many have to be revised from time to time in accordance with changes in the general economic conditions. However, the existing standards at any given moment, being the result of a mutual agreement between Capital and Labour, should be taken to represent economic justice. And the public should give their custom by preference to those tradesmen who observe these standards, in order to protect them from the unfair competition of less scrupulous rivals. Or a list may be obtained from a particular trade union; the Typographical Association, for example, publishes a list of printing offices throughout the country: it

is intended primarily for the use of its own members, but it is also available for the general public.

"White lists" have also been published by independent societies such as the Christian Social Union (*q.v.*) in England, and the Consumers' League in America, for public use in particular localities. The simplest plan is to start with some of the organised trades—*e.g.*, printers or tailors—in which the associations of masters and men have already agreed to a definite code of working rules as fair to both parties. In this case the trade itself, including employers and employed, fixes and guarantees the conditions; and the Christian Social Union simply circulates the list for the information of its own members and others who may wish to adopt the practice of preferential dealing. Wherever these lists have been in operation for a number of years they have always shown a gratifying tendency to increase. It is more difficult, however, to deal with an unorganised trade. But at Chester and Oxford, for example, it has been found possible to secure a code of rules for the drapery trade, owing to the goodwill of some of the largest firms, and the promised support of a number of influential ladies.

The principle of preferential dealing may also be applied in other directions. (See also CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.) For example, consumers may decline to have any dealings at all with shops (*q.v.*) which are kept open on the weekly half-holiday, or on Sunday, or late at night, after the usual hours of closing. They may help to check the practice of giving bribes or secret commissions (see ILLICIT COMMISSIONS) to domestic servants by giving notice to their tradespeople that they will withdraw their custom if such bribery is discovered. Similarly, a tradesman convicted

of offences against the Food and Drugs or Merchandise Marks Acts should also be liable to lose many of his ordinary customers (see ADULTERATION and COMMERCIAL MORALITY). Or questions may be asked in a drapery store about the provision of seats for the assistants, as required by law (see SHOPS); or, again, in order to check the ravages of lead poisoning (*q.v.*), purchasers of china and earthenware may insist on every piece being stamped "leadless glaze."

Prevention of Consumption.—Consumption, or tuberculosis, up to thirty years ago, was regarded by most doctors and nearly all laymen as an incurable and fatal malady—an inherited visitation of God. Many physicians had, however, suspected that it was infectious or communicable, and when Dr. Koch, of Berlin, demonstrated in 1882 that tubercle was caused by a micro-organism, and that this microscopic parasite was conveyed by the sputum and could only exist outside the body under the favouring influence of dirt, damp, and darkness, it needed little more to show that consumption was a preventable disease. Some ten years later, the then Prince of Wales, in opening an International Hygienic Congress, referred to this disease, and uttered the memorable words: "If preventable, why not prevented." The last twenty years have witnessed an ever-quickenening interest in preventive measures for dealing with what has been called the white man's plague (though its ravages are even greater among negroes). Medical officers of health (*q.v.*) all over the country found that consumption was most prevalent in slums and insanitary houses, and was largely responsible for high death rates (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS). Bacteriologists showed by experiments that tubercle could be inoculated into animals, and

that animals contracted the disease by inhaling dried sputum. In 1898 the National Association for the Prevention of Consumption (20, Hanover Square, W.), was started in order to assist the sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) to educate the public in the infectiousness and preventability of the disease, and the best measures for preventing it. The Society has done useful work in publishing educational leaflets, giving lectures, and lately in organising a tuberculosis exhibition, which travels from town to town and gives ocular demonstration of the way to avoid tuberculosis. (See also SOCIAL REFORM IN THE UNITED STATES.)

The Need. Consumption kills every year 50,000 persons in England and Wales—7,000 in London. One-eleventh of the total cost of pauperism—over one million pounds—is yearly spent on persons pauperised by tuberculosis. One-fifth of the disability from illness among working men is attributable to this disease.

The remedies may be divided into general and special:—

(a) *General Remedies.* Consumption is the product of damp and undrained sites, dark and close houses, and overcrowding (*q.v.*). Good drainage, large windows, wide streets, well-ventilated houses (see VENTILATION), with ample room space, are, therefore, the remedies. The conditions of our towns in these respects have been steadily improving since the Public Health Act (*q.v.*) of 1875, and at the same time the death rate from phthisis has steadily, if slowly, declined. But slums still exist, and dark and improperly ventilated houses are still being built. Sanitary authorities must be pressed to exercise their powers under Housing Acts (*q.v.*) and building bye-laws (*q.v.*), and to prevent overcrowding.

Consumption is also predisposed

to by poverty causing insufficient diet and by self-indulgence—notably by alcoholism. The reforms recommended by the Royal Commission on the Poor Law (see POOR LAW REFORM) should prevent the former; education and legal limitation of temptation, the latter.

(b) *Special Remedies.* These dealing with tuberculosis as an infectious disease, aim at limiting its spread not so much by isolation as by educating and treating every sufferer, so that he will cease to be a danger to his family and neighbours.

1. *Notification* (see NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES). That the remedies may be applied, the existence of the disease must be known, and it should, therefore, be made compulsorily notifiable. This has been done in Scotland and one English town—Sheffield. In other towns of Great Britain the disease has been made voluntarily notifiable, and the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) has issued an order requiring the notification of all persons attended by Poor Law medical officers.

2. *Prevention of Spitting.* As the disease is widespread among persons apparently well and going about their avocations, and as the sputum of such persons contains millions of tubercle germs, it is necessary to stop all spitting in public vehicles and rooms, and to teach consumptives only to spit in suitable receptacles. Spitting in public-houses should be made a penal offence, as in the absence of this precaution, the infection abounds on the floor of the public bar.

3. *Medical Treatment.* Early phthisis being curable and every untreated sufferer a public danger, early medical treatment is an essential of prevention. As poverty too often renders this impracticable, the working man persisting at his work till his illness has reached an

incurable stage, the proposals of the Poor Law Commissioners' Report for bringing medical treatment within the reach of all should be carried out by legislation.

4. *Open-air Treatment.* Far the most successful treatment of consumption yet discovered is that by open air. This can best be provided at sanatoria for consumptives (*q.v.*). But it is often successfully carried out at the patient's own home by sleeping close to a wide-open, unobstructed window, and spending the day in the open air. Shelters built of wood, or wood and canvas, which are freely open to the air on all sides, but are constructed so as to keep out the rain and wind when necessary, have been used in patient's own gardens with great success, notably in Essex by Dr. Lyster.

5. *Anti-Tuberculosis Dispensary System* (*q.v.*).

6. *Tuberculin.* Soon after Dr. Koch discovered the tubercle germ, he also found that the injection of a preparation of these germs or their products into a consumptive person produced a cure under favourable conditions. This preparation is called tuberculin. Its use, though undoubtedly often successful, has often caused serious and even fatal results. Improved methods of administration have, however, been discovered, and some physicians, notably Dr. Camac Wilkinson, advocate the tuberculin treatment as more successful than even the sanatorium, and propose to eradicate the disease by a system of tuberculin dispensaries. The treatment must, however, still be regarded as on its trial, and only an adjuvant to more well-tested remedies such as those above described.

7. *Isolation of Advanced Cases.* As indicated above, early cases of pulmonary tuberculosis and nearly all those suffering from tuberculosis

of other organs are not to be regarded as seriously infectious if ordinary precautions are carried out. Advanced cases of consumption, however, are a decided danger to persons living in the same house, and if they cannot be properly isolated at home, should be removed to a public institution, such as the workhouse infirmary (*q.v.*) or a home for the dying (*q.v.*).

8. All milk should be guaranteed to come from cows free from tuberculosis, or else should be boiled.

(For further information, see Dr. Newsholme's *Prevention of Tuberculosis*, and Sir George Newman's *Health of the State*.)

Preservatives in Food.—(See ADULTERATION.)

Prevention of Corruption Act.—(See COMMERCIAL MORALITY and ILLICIT COMMISSIONS.)

Preventive Cases.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Preventive Detention.—(See PRISONERS.)

Printing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Prisoners.—(See also DISCHARGED PRISONERS' AID.) Offenders against the law in England are automatically divided after conviction into two distinct sections, the governing factor being the length of sentence. If it be for *two years or under*, the culprit is called a "prisoner," and serves his time in a *local prison*, of which there are fifty in England and seven in Wales. In the case of a criminal receiving a sentence of *three years or over*, he is called a "convict," and serves his time in one of the duly certified *convict or public works prisons*. Of these there are five only: Dartmoor, Parkhurst, Portland, and Maidstone, with Aylesbury for females.

The population of a convict prison is representative of all classes of society. The nobility, learned professions, the Army, the Navy, merchants, financiers, clerks,

etc., as well as the criminal sections, all supply their quota. Crime is not limited to one particular stratum of society, although, of course, in a convict prison the habitual offender preponderates. It must, however, be kept in mind that a fair proportion of the "habituals" have been originally drawn from the upper grades of society.

Convicts are divided into three distinct classes, viz., the *Star*, the *Intermediate*, and the *Recidivist*. These classes are treated in different parts of the prison, and all communication between members of different sections is strictly forbidden. The reason for this segregation is that, so far as possible, imprisonment shall not mean contamination. Prisoners in the *Star* class (so-called from the red cloth star worn on the cap and tunic) are *first offenders*, whose previous good character have been proved after a careful investigation of their antecedents. At the present time, the "Stars" are mainly interned at Maidstone, where they are employed in the prison printing works. No other class of convict is confined at Maidstone. Excellent as this classification is, it is open to further improvement. Probably in the near future the *Star* class will itself be subdivided into sections representative of various crimes. At present murderers, forgers, those guilty of indecent offences, defaulting solicitors, etc.—men drawn from varying ranks of society—are all herded together, and the results are necessarily bad. With the exception of being thus separated from criminals with previous convictions, the *Star* class have no extra privileges. Their clothing, diet, and hours of labour are the same; they earn exactly the same remission of sentence by good conduct, only in certain cases of long sentences a larger gratuity (see below) may be earned.

The *Intermediate* class consists of convicts who have had one, or perhaps two, previous convictions (not necessarily sentences of penal servitude). They are located separately, and work entirely apart from any other class of prisoner. The badge denoting an *Intermediate* is a red cloth chevron worn on the cap and tunic.

The *Recidivist* class is composed of habitual criminals, and many of them have records which show thirty or more convictions; seven or eight sentences of penal servitude and twenty or thirty of imprisonment. Some of these recidivists date back to the days of foreign penal establishments. There are very numerous instances of men who commenced their career of crime at nine years of age and have spent their entire existence in industrial schools, reformatories, local prisons, and convict establishments.

Both the intermediates and recidivists do much the same work, enjoy the same diet, and earn the same remission of sentence. In certain cases, the intermediates can earn a larger gratuity.

There are certain privileges which can be earned by every class of convict, of which the following are the most important:—

Remission of Sentence. A convict, who is of exemplary conduct and loses no marks for misbehaviour, can obtain the remission of a quarter of his sentence, e.g., a man undergoing imprisonment for eight years can earn his release at the expiration of his sixth year.

Special Stage. A convict is eligible for promotion to this stage during the last year of his sentence, but no *Intermediate* with less than five years' penal servitude or *Recidivist* with less than six can be admitted to this stage. The privileges obtained are permission to send out and receive letters

more frequently, better diet, special employment, and an extra gratuity.

Long Sentence Division. All convicts undergoing a sentence of *over* ten years are, if recommended, placed in this division, when they have completed seven and a half years of actual imprisonment. They earn a special grant of money (2s. 6d. *per mensem*), half of which they are permitted to expend in prison on certain articles of comfort and relaxation. They wear a different coloured uniform, and earn a few extra days remission. Both the Special Stage and Long Sentence Division may be forfeited by misconduct.

Gratuity. Every convict can earn a certain sum of money whilst in prison by good conduct. This money is called his "gratuity," and is used on his discharge for his benefit. The lowest sum that can be earned is 16s. 6d., the highest £6. (For the exceptions, see above under "Long Sentence Division.")

There are two important sections of convicts who always serve their sentence at Parkhurst, the invalids and the weak-minded. The hospital there is excellent, and the treatment skilful and humane. In extraordinary cases the services of a specialist are called in. Convicts who are on the borderland of insanity or who are weak-minded from various causes are fairly numerous. They are all segregated in a special wing, and prison discipline is considerably relaxed in their case. It would be an infinitely better course to locate them in an institution of their own, where it would be possible to use dormitories and adopt methods of treatment more in accord with their mental deficiency than with their criminal depravity.

The labour to which convicts are set is very varied: quarrying, building, farming, the manufacture of

articles used in the Prison, War, and Admiralty Departments; printing, bookbinding, tailoring, shoe-making, carpentering, blacksmithing, etc. The diet is ample, though not luxurious, and the clothing warm and serviceable. Each convict is allowed the use of a slate and pencil in his cell, and is well supplied with books from the prison library, which contains works of fiction, travel, biography, reviews, and magazines. There is also a good supply of English and foreign educational books. A warm bath is taken every week, whilst visits from friends are allowed at stated intervals.

The material environment of a convict is good and the treatment he receives humane. The disadvantages of the system are the loss of initiative which accrues from a long period of confinement, where everything is done by order, and the necessities and comforts of life provided without any thought or effort on the part of the recipient. The rule of silence which, in most prisons, is strictly enforced, also tends to moral and mental deterioration. The man is thrown in entirely upon himself, and egoism of a baleful description and introspection are the results. Something might be done, and probably will be done in the future, to minimise these evils, especially in the case of those undergoing penal servitude for the first time. With regard to the provision made for religious exercises, a chaplain is attached to every prison. Divine service is held daily and twice on Sundays. Sermons and addresses are frequently given, and a "mission" is held annually. Prisoners of denominations other than the Church of England are permitted to receive visits from their own ministers, and no pressure is put upon them to attend the chapel services. A Roman Catholic priest is assigned to every penal

establishment, and there is a Rabbi at Parkhurst, to which place all Jewish convicts are sent.

Mention should be made of the new building in the course of erection at Camp Hill (Isle of Wight), which is to serve as the first preventive detention prison. Habitual criminals in the future not only have to face the penalty awarded by law for any felonious act they may commit, but may also, if convicted on indictment as an "habitual criminal," incur the additional punishment of a period of preventive detention not exceeding ten years. The rules for the government of this establishment have not yet been published, and it is, therefore, impossible to refer to the treatment likely to be received by its future inmates. It is generally believed, however, that the discipline will be less severe, and the privileges more numerous than in public works prisons.

In *local prisons* are confined all those sentenced to imprisonment for periods ranging from one day to two years. As under 3 per cent. of the total number of convictions (about 185,000 per annum) receive a sentence of one year and 36 per cent. a week or under, the population is perpetually changing. The result is that the tone of the prison is brighter and less charged with misery and hopelessness. The prisoners themselves, moreover, are less criminal and more open to receive good impressions. There are three recognised divisions among local prisoners, termed respectively the First, Second, and Third. The first, a very small one indeed (fifty-five only in 1908), is reserved for persons committed for contempt of court or for offences involving only a slight degree of moral turpitude. They are permitted to occupy a furnished room, pay a prisoner to act as servant, and purchase their food from outside. The second

division is larger than the first, but there are only about 1 per cent. of the total convictions placed by the magistrates in this section. They commit instead to imprisonment, *without hard labour*, which is a formula that is practically without meaning, as by law all prisoners are compelled to labour hard. The second division prisoners are located in a separate part of the building, wear a different coloured uniform, do easier work, and enjoy dietary privileges. The third division includes over 98 per cent. of all convicted persons, and is composed of "all sorts and conditions of men" undergoing punishment for offences as wide apart as inability to pay a fine for riding a bicycle without a light to manslaughter. There is also a Star class, which serves the same purpose that it does in convict prisons. The labour to which local prisoners are put ranges from stone-breaking and oakum picking to work at all the useful trades. The greater proportion, however, being short sentences, are employed on the low class labour. The diet is good, but less liberal than in convict prisons; the supply of library books is also sufficient. School instruction is given to all men who on admission are found incapable of passing the Third Standard. In addition to the ordinary classes of prisoners mentioned above, there are the debtors, a fairly numerous body, and suspects awaiting trial at the assizes or quarter sessions. There are also, from time to time, those condemned to death. It should be noted that the extreme penalty of the law is never carried out in convict prisons in which, however, are confined those who have been reprieved and are doing a "life" sentence. Adequate arrangements are made for the treatment of the sick, and religious facilities are similar to those in convict prisons. The prisoners respond

very freely to the chaplains' ministrations, and a large number go out distinctly better for the instruction they have received. There is, of course, a strong contingent of hardened offenders, but cases of genuine reformation are not uncommon even in that class. The weak spot in the system which deserves the attention of reformers is that the genuine criminal and the chance offender are punished in the same establishment. The unfortunate convicted for an offence against the Vaccination Acts, corporation bye-laws, beggars, and vagrants, etc., are not felons, and ought not to be herded with them, but should be placed in some "house of correction," where they do not run the risk of meeting the determined and hardened wrongdoer; and the discipline suited for the deliberately evil could be modified to suit the needs of the foolish and unfortunate.

Prisoners' Aid.—(See DISCHARGED PRISONERS' AID.)

Private Service.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Probation Officers.—(See also JUVENILE OFFENDERS AND WOMEN IN SOCIAL WORK.) This term, well known in America for many years, was only officially adopted in Great Britain on the passing of the Probation of Offenders Act, 1907, the main principle of which is the substitution when expedient of a period of probation for a sentence of imprisonment. The probation officer is the person under whose supervision the probationer, usually a first offender, is placed for a period varying from six months upwards. In this country no special body of probation officers has as yet been formed, the duties of the office being as a rule assigned to one or other of the representatives of philanthropic societies regularly attending the police courts (see POLICE COURT MISSIONARIES). These duties

generally consist in endeavouring to find work for the person placed on probation, in interviewing him as frequently as may be necessary, in making so far as possible such arrangements as will improve the condition of his home life, and in seeing that such special conditions as may be laid down by the magistrates (in some cases, *e.g.*, the non-entering of public houses) are carried out. A small fee—far too small—is paid to the probation officer for each case placed under his or her charge.

The theory of the Act is that the probation officer shall stand in the position of a friend or guardian to his charge, and for this reason it is not desirable that police officers should be appointed to these posts. So far as it particularly concerns young offenders, the disadvantage of the present system is that the persons appointed are almost invariably engaged in dealing with offenders of every type, and, in consequence, have not that special knowledge and sympathy which are so essential a factor in handling young persons. Exceptions to this common practice are to be found in London and more conspicuously in Birmingham, where a number of ex-University men and others occupying a similar social position have been appointed honorary probation officers. Birmingham, indeed, probably furnishes the best examples of children's courts (*q.v.*), probation officers, and remand homes (*q.v.*) to be found in the country.

Processions.—(See OPEN-AIR MEETINGS AND PROCESSIONS.)

Professional Betting.—(See BOOK-MAKING.)

Profit Sharing and Labour Co-partnership.—*Profit Sharing* is a mode of industrial remuneration under which those employed receive besides their salary or wages, a stipulated proportion of the net

profits of the year, either in cash or deferred advantages. In the latter case, the worker's share is either paid over to a provident fund against sickness or old age, or invested on behalf of the working men in the shares of the employing company. It is hoped that this stimulus will draw forth the best efforts of employees, because reward will attend visibly and closely on effort. In 1894, on behalf of the Board of Trade (*q.v.*), Mr. Schloss reported on 152 experiments, of which 101 were still being carried on. But the system has never met with much success outside France and England; and even in these countries it is not making great progress. The reasons are, perhaps, two. First of all, the system ties the hand of the trade unions (*q.v.*) in their struggle for a general advance in wage rates, and seems to them to colour justice with a false tint of generosity. Secondly, in itself the system is not an ideal method of industrial remuneration; for the worker's share in profits, if the system is one of genuine profit sharing, is contingent on market risks over which he, as a worker, has little, if any, control.

Profit-sharing, therefore, does not seem to have any great future before it, unless it develops into that fuller form of association which is known as industrial copartnership. Here the workers not only receive a share in the profits, but also have one or more representatives on the board of directors. This means that the workers get a sympathetic hearing for their own point of view, and that they are introduced to a valuable, if subordinate, share in the brain work of management. In 1889, as the result of a quarrel with the local trade union, Sir George Livesey introduced a scheme of profit-sharing into the South Metropolitan Gas Company. This is now supplemented by the representation

of workers on the directorate. In 1906 four other gas companies had introduced similar schemes of profit-sharing; and one of these, the South Suburban, had advanced to the higher stage of workers' representation. Messrs. William Thomson & Sons, Ltd., Huddersfield, may be mentioned as a concern in which this fuller form of profit-sharing has operated with success for some years.

Labour Copartnership is more fully realised in those societies of working men producers, which have sometimes been termed societies for co-operative production. Outside the rather special tenants' building societies, of which there were about twenty in 1906, there are to-day in Great Britain a hundred or so such labour copartnerships, which are organised under the Labour Copartnership Association, established in 1884. They are strongest in the building, textile, and boot and shoe industries. These societies derive their capital from their working members, from private sympathisers, and from the ordinary co-operative stores (see CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES). They sell either on the open market or to the co-operative stores. But although the stores in some cases supply them with capital and a market, the labour copartnerships are independent concerns, and are not to be confused with the productive departments of the wholesale societies, which have sometimes entered into competition with them. The distinctive feature of the labour copartnership is that the worker-*qua*-worker receives a share in the profits and has some influence on the committee of management.

There are some 300 or more labour copartnerships in France, but comparison between the two movements is difficult, because the French societies depend very largely on Government contracts for their

custom. In Italy there is a very interesting group of labour societies which are conducted on a genuine copartnership basis. They may be described as self-organised labour gangs, working usually on materials provided by the contract giver. The two most important classes are the "*Braccianti*," i.e., navvies engaged in earth-works, canal cuttings, and other forms of unskilled labour; and the "*Muratori*," i.e., masons and bricklayers. Here, again, however, as in France, a certain amount of their custom is derived from Government contracts in tendering for which they have special preferences granted by the law.

(Works of reference: *Report on Profit Sharing*, by Mr. D. F. Schloss (C. 7458), 1894; D. F. Schloss, *Methods of Industrial Remuneration*; *Reports of the Labour Copartnership Association*; H. D. Lloyd, *Labour Copartnership*.)

Provided Schools.—(See ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.)

Provident Dispensaries.—Provident dispensaries work on principles of insurance as applied to medical treatment. Small weekly or monthly payments are made during health and sickness alike. These payments form a fund to defray the medical expenses of those who are sick, providing them with attendance and medicine at the dispensary, the doctor's surgery, or in their own homes.

The first essential in starting a provident dispensary is to secure the co-operation of medical men by interviewing them individually, or, preferably, by holding a meeting and discussing with them the pros and cons of contract practice in medical work. Some opposition must be expected owing to ignorance of the methods of properly conducted provident dispensaries.

Every qualified medical man should be eligible for service on the

staff, but it will not at first be necessary to appoint more than three or four, adding to them as members increase.

The next step is to obtain premises, either a private house, or a good-sized shop, with space on the ground floor for a waiting room, one or two small consulting rooms, and a dispensing department, and, perhaps, rooms above for a dispenser or caretaker.

A qualified dispenser must then be engaged, and should be consulted as to the stock—small at first—of drugs and appliances required, for which tenders, with conditions of supply, should be invited from good wholesale houses.

A provisional committee, comprising medical men, social workers, representatives of working class organisations, etc., will meanwhile be considering rules for the admission of members and the general conduct of the institution. Those in use at other dispensaries may easily be obtained as guides. Care must be taken in framing them to confine the benefits to those who are unable to pay ordinary medical fees. There must be a wage limit of, say, 40s. or 45s. a week for a family, and 25s. for a single person; and some limit also as to age; persons over fifty-five are not generally eligible as members.

The usual rates of contribution are:—

	Per month (4 weeks)
Single adult	6d.
Man and wife	1s.
Children under 14, on parents' card (only 4 charged for)	2d.
Young persons (14-18), off family card	4d.

Hours of opening vary, but evening attendance is essential.

Payments are received at the dispensary at certain fixed times, but in poorer districts it may be

necessary to allow weekly payments, entailing the extra expense of a collector.

Persons wishing to join the dispensary, but needing immediate attention, pay a special fee of, say, 2s. 6d. a week until recovery.

Some provision should be made for persons suffering from chronic ailments, or over the age limit. These cases should be considered individually on their merits, and, after examination by the medical officer, admitted at an increased regular subscription.

Arrangements for midwifery (see MIDWIVES) and dentistry are also necessary. Married women, who have been members for six months, are attended in their confinements by their dispensary doctor at a fee of 15s. or 18s. paid beforehand in instalments, or for a less fee if a midwife is employed. (See also MATERNITY CLUBS.)

The dentist attached to the dispensary does extractions, and gives advice free; other work is done at reduced charges, paid by the members. Members select their own doctor.

The remuneration of the staff—which is the first charge on the dispensary—is regulated by the amount of the members' contributions; a fixed proportion, not less than half, being paid to each doctor, according to the number of his members, plus midwifery fees, which are made up to a guinea each from the dispensary funds. These funds will need supplementing at first by honorary subscriptions to meet initial outlay and working expenses during the growth of the membership.

The provident dispensary must be something more than a place where cheap medical treatment can be obtained. It must be educative in its aims and method, inculcating thrift (*q.v.*) and self-dependence, with a definite place in a well-thought-out scheme for industrial

medical attendance. There should be organic connection between it and hospitals (*q.v.*), and the members requiring hospital treatment or advice should, on the recommendation of their doctors, be entitled to first consideration. It should do much to relieve the congestion in the out-patient departments through the inquiries and recommendations of the hospital almoners. It is possible for any member of a provident dispensary, when changing his residence, to transfer his membership to any other dispensary without loss of benefit. Nearly all the forty provident dispensaries of London are represented on the London Provident Dispensaries' Council, and a scheme for the transference of members has been generally agreed on.

Provident Maternity Clubs.—(See MATERNITY CLUBS.)

Provident Surgical Appliance Society.—(See SURGICAL AID SOCIETY.)

Provision of Meals.—(See CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES and FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.)

Provision of Spectacles.—(See SPECTACLES FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN.)

Public Analyst.—(See also ADULTERATION.) A public analyst is a chemist specially qualified, whose duty is to analyse samples of foods and drugs submitted to him. Any sanitary authority (*q.v.*) may appoint an analyst, and must, if required by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) to do so. Most large boroughs and county authorities have such appointments, and usually have an arrangement that so many (say 500) samples be analysed yearly, at a fixed charge for each. A few boroughs have appointed officials to give their whole time to the work at a fixed salary. Any person may have a sample of food analysed by the public analyst of the district on paying a fee of 10s. 6d. Samples are usually

taken by sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*) under the direction of the medical officer of health (*q.v.*); the sample must be divided and other formalities gone through if a prosecution is to follow. If the analyst reports that the sample is adulterated, the sanitary authority decides whether the adulteration is of such nature and quantity as to justify a prosecution.

Public Assistance Authority.—(See POOR LAW REFORM.)

Public Health Act.—(See also ANIMALS, KEEPING OF; DISINFECTATION; ISOLATION HOSPITALS; MEDICAL OFFICER OF HEALTH; NUISANCES; PUBLIC ANALYST; ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE, and UNSOUND FOOD.) The Public Health Act, 1875, though several Acts dealing with public health had preceded it, was the first great landmark in the sanitary legislation of this country. It established sanitary authorities, (*q.v.*), either urban or rural, throughout the whole of England and Wales. It vested sewers (see DRAINAGE) in the sanitary authority and gave power to construct new ones. If there is a sewer within 100 ft. of any house, the sanitary authority must require the owner to drain that house into the sewer, or, failing a sewer, into a covered cesspool. Every house must have a sufficient water closet, earth closet, or privy, and an ashpit with proper doors or covering. The sanitary authority may, and when ordered by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) must, undertake or contract for the removal of house refuse, and the cleansing of earth closets, privies, ashpits, cesspools, and streets.

The sanitary authority may construct water works or contract for a supply of water to their district; but under the Public Health (Water) Act, 1878, the sanitary authority must provide any part of their

district with a supply of water, in cases where danger arises to health from the insufficiency or unwholesomeness of the existing supply, and a general scheme is required and can be got at reasonable cost.

Heavy penalties are imposed on persons polluting streams and water courses.

Cellars may not be occupied as separate dwellings unless they are 7 ft. high and comply with other fixed requirements (see SMALL SLUMS and UNHEALTHY DWELLINGS)

The sanitary authority must make bye-laws (*q.v.*) for common lodging houses (*q.v.*), and may do so for houses occupied by members of more than one family. (For the duties of the sanitary authority as to nuisances, see NUISANCES.)

In urban districts, public streets (repairable by the inhabitants at large) are vested in the sanitary authority, who must cause them to be paved and repaired.

The sanitary authority may provide public slaughter-houses. It is the authority for dealing with dangerous structures.

There have been several amending Acts since 1875. These have given increased powers to the sanitary authority with respect to sewers, polluted sites, pollution of streams, etc.

The Infectious Diseases (*q.v.*) Prevention Act, 1890, gives powers for dealing with suspected milk supplies, infected houses, and articles and bodies of persons who have died of infectious disease. The sanitary authority may detain infected persons without proper accommodation and provide temporary shelter during disinfection.

The Public Health Act, 1875, and other Acts mentioned above are not in force in the Metropolis. London has its own Act passed in 1891. The provisions of this Act closely resemble those summarised above, including the provisions of the

Infectious Diseases Prevention Act and the Notification Act (see NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES).

The London Act differs in the following important matters :—

(1) A house without a proper and sufficient water supply (*q.v.*) is held unfit for occupation.

(2) Every house must have one or more water closets, with proper water supply, trapped soil pan, and other accessories.

(3) The regulations for cellar dwellings are more stringent.

(4) Swine must not be kept within 40 yards of a street or public place.

(5) If a sanitary authority neglects to carry out its duties under the Act, the London County Council (*q.v.*) may act in its stead and recover expenses. Outside London it is the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) that must act in default of a sanitary authority.

(6) The London County Council must make bye-laws among other things, (*a*) as to conveyance of offensive matter by road ; (*b*) as to filling up cesspools and removal of refuse ; (*c*) as to water closets, ash-pits, cesspools, and receptacles for dung.

Every London sanitary authority must make and enforce bye-laws (*a*) for the prevention of nuisances from offensive matter running out of slaughter-houses, knackers' yards, butchers', or fishmongers' shops, etc. (see OFFENSIVE TRADES) ; (*b*) for the paving of yards of dwelling-houses ; (*c*) as to drinking-water cisterns ; (*d*) as to efficient flushing of water closets.

For further information, see the Acts referred to, and Whitelegge & Newman's *Hygiene*.

Public Health Statistics.—Public health statistics are mainly concerned with (1) population, (2) birth rates (*q.v.*), and (3) death rates.

The population of any area is the basis of the general birth rate and

death rate of that area. The census (*q.v.*) being only taken every ten years, for intermediate years it is necessary to make an estimate. This is based by the Registrar-General (*q.v.*) on the two preceding censuses, and presumes that the population continues to increase in the same ratio. If the number of houses is known, the population may be estimated by multiplying this number by the number of persons to a house as found at the last census.

All birth rates and death rates based on a general population are liable to be misleading ; for accuracy, the number of each sex at various age periods should be known. Then the birth rate would be best given as the number of births per 1,000 females between twenty and forty-five years of age, and death rates should be given for several age periods, *e.g.*, under one, one to five, five to twenty, and then for each twenty years. Towns containing a large number of young adults have a higher birth rate and a lower death rate than towns containing many old people, though they are not necessarily more healthy.

Instead of calculating death rates for each age period, the number of the population at each age in any town may be compared with the corresponding numbers in England and Wales, and a standard death rate calculated on the supposition that England and Wales have the same sex and age distribution as the town in question. This standard death rate divided by the death rate of England and Wales gives a factor which, multiplied by the crude general death rate, is the corrected death rate, and enables the health of the town in question to be compared with that of other towns for which a corrected death rate has been similarly calculated.

The birth rate of a community

for a certain year is the number of births in that community occurring during the year per 1,000 population, *e.g.*, if the population is 5,000 and there are 100 births, the birth rate is 20 per 1,000.

The English birth rate, which was 35.4 in 1871-80, has steadily declined since, and in 1908 was only 26.5. More males than females are born, but more males die in infancy, so that the female population is larger than the male as 104 to 100.

The death rate is the number of deaths per 1,000 population, *e.g.*, if in any town of 20,000 population there are 300 deaths in one year, the death rate of that town is 15.

There are several considerations that have to be taken into account before a death rate can be said to be a measure of the healthiness of a locality. Those relating to age distribution of population have been already described, and the mode of correction for this source of error. Another fact which may seriously increase the death rate is the existence of public institutions receiving sick persons from outside the district. All deaths of such persons should be deducted to obtain a correct death rate, but all deaths of inhabitants of the district who may die in institutions outside the district should be added. Attempt is made in London boroughs to distribute all deaths of persons dying away from home, whether in institutions or elsewhere, but this cannot be satisfactorily done.

As stated above, a general death rate is only of value if corrected for age distribution of the population, and even then is influenced by the class of population, *e.g.*, an industrial district has a higher death rate (*q.v.*) than one inhabited by the middle and upper classes. The infantile death rate (see INFANT MORTALITY) is a better index of sanitary conditions. This is usually given as the number of deaths of children

under one year of age per 1,000 births. Thus if there are 3,000 births in one year and 360 deaths under one year, the infant mortality of that town is 120. Owing to the number of births being always available, infantile mortality is not subject to uncertainty as is a death rate calculated on an estimated population.

The infant mortality under five years of age is often given. If, as usual, it is calculated on the total population, it is of less value than the rate under one year.

The death rate of England and Wales has declined from 22.4 in 1851-60 to 14.7 in 1908.

The infantile death rate was 154 in 1851-60 and also in 1891-1900. It has, however, declined very much since 1900. In 1908 it was 120. It is a rule of vital statistics that the smaller the numbers dealt with, the less reliable are the conclusions drawn from them, and birth and death rates for small populations should only be given for a series of years. Thus, a village of 100 persons might have no deaths one year, and five deaths the following year. It would be obviously absurd to say that its death rate was nil, or that it was 5.0. It is also misleading to quote a death rate of a moderate town for a week or month, *e.g.*, Worthing might have a death rate of 3.0 one week and 20.0 the following.

The zymotic death rate, or death rate from the common infectious diseases (*q.v.*), though often quoted, is of little value. The only safe mode of comparison is to deal with the mortality from one disease in different towns during the same period.

Among the best indexes of the healthiness of any population are the infantile mortality, the phthisis death rate, and the number of deaths from diarrhoea and enteric fever.

(For further information, see Whitelegge & Newman's *Hygiene* and Newsholme's *Vital Statistics*.)

Public Houses.—There are few branches of the law, which are of general interest, more complicated in their provisions than that which relates to the sale and consumption of intoxicating liquors. Some points have been noted in reference to the licences required for the sale of intoxicating liquors (*q.v.*), while others have received attention in some remarks upon the law relating to drunkenness (*q.v.*). As to the public house, there are two lines of thought. One, strongly represented among the temperance societies (*q.v.*), and the primary cause of the formation of the Social Institutes Union (*q.v.*), seeks its total abolition; while the other desires its reform; and to whichever side the social worker may lean, it is certainly desirable that he should recognise the plain fact of the existence of the public house, and endeavour to support the law in minimising its deleterious features.

There may be evasions of the law as to the sale of liquor, *e.g.*, the holder of an "off" licence may allow liquor to be drunk on the premises. No sale may be made to a child under fourteen, except in corked and sealed bottles, and then only in a "bottle and jug" department, since no child under fourteen may be in a place mainly used for "on" consumption.

Badly conducted public houses, where there are frequent rows, come within the provision which punishes with a fine and possible loss of licence any licensed person who "permits drunkenness or any violent, quarrelsome, or riotous conduct to take place on his premises." Serving a person in a state of drunkenness is also a punishable offence. If a constable is found upon licensed premises, when upon duty, except for some purpose in

the execution of his duty, or is supplied with refreshment either as a gift or by sale, the licence holder is liable to a penalty. The hours for the opening of public houses are fixed by statute, and a sale at any other time is illegal, or even the consumption of liquor which has been purchased before the hour of closing. The person who is found on the premises under such circumstances may also be fined. Private individuals may assist the authorities in enforcing the law by collecting well-authenticated evidence of infringements. Much depends upon the activities of the police and the extent to which they are supported by the licensing justices.

Public Libraries.—In 1904 Mr. Sidney Webb published a volume containing a survey of education in London, and therein dealt with the organisation of the library service as an integral part of the modern educational system. By slow degrees that proposition is obtaining general acceptance. The libraries encouraged by the Library Association and supported by the library authorities are directing attention to the value of the library as a means of education. But perhaps the most hopeful movement to increase that recognition by the people of the practical value of the libraries is the formation of tutorial classes (see WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION), which are creating a demand for an increased supply of solid literature. There are many means which may be used as keys to open up the resources of the library. A common feature is a bibliography upon subjects of current interest. Lectures upon local history or other subjects will include suggestions of the books containing the information for further study and research. Special trades in the locality will suggest a section specially devoted to the literature of each, and some notification to

employers and employed of its presence in the library. Social workers should themselves learn how to make use of the public libraries, and they will then find many opportunities of assisting others, specially young people. Some public libraries have a special department for children. The relation between the school library (*q.v.*) and the public library varies in different areas. It is generally considered that the library is an important adjunct to the school, but it is difficult to see how the right relationship may be secured while the central authority in matters relating to the public libraries is the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) instead of the Board of Education (*q.v.*). The Acts relating to public libraries are adoptive (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT), and the authorities who may adopt them are, in London, the Metropolitan borough councils (*q.v.*) and elsewhere the borough and other urban district councils (*q.v.*), and parish councils (*q.v.*) or parish meetings (*q.v.*). In some places the public library and education committees work to some extent in conjunction.

Reference may be made to the work of a library assistant as an occupation for lads on leaving school. Generally speaking, the post is regarded much in the same way as a clerkship in the municipal service, and in some places the library assistants may be transferred to the town clerk's department or elsewhere, and *vice versa*. The Library Association are endeavouring to modify this state of affairs by making the work of a library assistant correspond somewhat to that of an assistant teacher, and, therefore, providing some training to assistants in London and provincial centres, but their efforts have not met with any marked success.

Public Performances, Children Employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Public Vaccinator.—(See VACCINATION.)

Public Welfare Associations.—(See COUNCILS OF SOCIAL WELFARE.)

Puerperal Fever.—(See MIDWIVES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Pupil Teachers.—The old arrangement, by which a child in an elementary school (*q.v.*) on reaching the age of fourteen was allowed to take charge of a certain number of infants and to continue his own education, so far as the master of the school had opportunity to assist him, is giving place to newer methods. The policy of the Board of Education (*q.v.*) is to secure that young people who desire to become teachers, shall receive some portion of their education in a secondary school (*q.v.*). They may do so as bursars (*q.v.*) or student-teachers (*q.v.*); but pupil teachers are still recognised by the Board of Education. They must be over sixteen (except in rural districts, where the age may be fifteen), but not over eighteen. The period for which a pupil teacher is recognised is normally two years. During that period his time must be divided between receiving training in the art of teaching and instruction from a recognised source, preferably a pupil teacher centre. Many pupil teacher centres have become secondary schools, and are thus recognised by the Board of Education. The regulations as to their organisation and curriculum, and also the details in respect to the conditions of employment of pupil teachers, are fully set out in the "Regulations for the Preliminary Education of Elementary School Teachers," issued by the Board of Education. Variations, however, exist as to the methods adopted by local education authorities (*q.v.*) of applying those regulations to the particular requirements of the educational system of the locality, so that the

little book containing the Board's regulations usually needs to be supplemented by some information from the local education authority.

Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses.—(See also DISTRICT NURSING, HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, MIDWIVES, ROYAL BRITISH NURSES' ASSOCIATION, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and VILLAGE NURSING.) Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1889. It was founded by her late Majesty Queen Victoria, "to provide improved means of nursing for the sick poor among our subjects," and was endowed with £70,000, the offering of the women of Great Britain and Ireland, on the occasion of the fiftieth year of her reign. This sum was augmented, in 1901, by £84,000 from the Women's Memorial to Queen Victoria. The money collected in Ireland is used for work in that country, and that in Scotland is in the hands of the Scottish Council. The whole of the income of the Institute is devoted to the training and inspection of Queen's Nurses, together with the necessary expenses of administration.

The work in England, Ireland, and Wales is directly under the Central Council of the Institute, the Scottish Council taking the responsibility of the work in Scotland. Homes have been established in all the large centres, which provide district training on approved lines for hospital trained nurses, in which the nurse works for six months under the instruction of the superintendent of the home, and attends lectures on hygiene and domestic sanitation, sick room cookery, maternity nursing, tuberculosis, and social subjects. Before enrolment as a Queen's Nurse, she is required to take a simple final examination in practical district nursing.

Midwifery training is also given to a certain number of nurses. In addition to the nurses under agreement to it, the Institute accepts as Queen's nurses those trained by and working under affiliated homes, who have fulfilled the required qualifications.

In order that an association may become affiliated, the promoters agree to carry on the work on certain broad principles embodied in the conditions of affiliation, and also to satisfy the Institute that the financial prospects of the association give reason to expect that the work will be permanent. A Queen's Nurse costs the district which employs her from £90 to £100 a year; where several nurses live together, the cost per head is usually a little less. In many districts the associations are now organised on a provident basis, free nursing being provided in cases of necessity. Boards of Guardians frequently give an annual subscription to the funds. On January 1, 1911, 1,795 Queen's Nurses were working in the United Kingdom under 938 associations.

County nursing associations in affiliation with the Queen's Institute were organised to provide an improved system of nursing in rural districts, and with a view to co-operating with associations already existing. Of these there are now in England twenty associations, in Scotland one, and Wales two, in affiliation with the Institute which employ, besides a number of Queen's Nurses, over 1,000 village nurses and midwives. They work under the direction of a county superintendent, who is an experienced Queen's Nurse.

Systematic inspection is an essential factor of the work of the Institute: the work, books, and appliances of every affiliated association are inspected periodically.

As the work has grown, and the powers for good that lie in the

hands of Queen's Nurses, from their special knowledge of the life of the nation, have become generally recognised, new responsibilities are being placed upon them. The Midwives (*q.v.*) Act has created a great demand for Queen's Nurses holding the certificate of the Central Midwives Board. Under the Notification of Births Act (*q.v.*), (1907), many Queen's Nurses are employed by municipal authorities. The Children Act (1908) has enabled Queen's Nurses, as infant life protection (*q.v.*) visitors, to visit regularly children boarded out (see BOARDING OUT) by guardians in the various unions. Queen's Nurses are also being employed in the campaign throughout the country against tuberculosis (see PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION), and they are helping to found schools for mothers (*q.v.*) in many of our towns. In Ireland, twenty-nine Queen's Nurses have been appointed under the Women's National Health Association.

The medical inspection of school children (*q.v.*), under the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, has called attention to the amount of unsuspected suffering amongst children of school age. The advantage of Queen's Nurses undertaking school nursing officially for the education authorities lies in the extended opportunities thus afforded of teaching mothers cleanliness and the proper way to feed and clothe young children, thus preventing illness, while carrying out the treatment of the sick under medical orders.

Every new departure and fresh responsibility but emphasizes the growing recognition in the public mind of the value of the work of the Queen's Nurses as an educative force, and the immense power that lies in their hands in the sphere of social service.

The General Superintendent is

Miss Amy Hughes, and the offices of the Institute are at 58 Victoria Street, S.W.

Ragged School Union.—(See WAIFS AND STRAYS.)

Railway Employment.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Rating Authorities.—(See LOCAL AUTHORITIES.)

Reading Circles.—(See also NEWSPAPER NIGHTS.) A number of people who agree to read the same course of books and to discuss them together may be called a reading circle. It is most desirable that each member should, if possible, possess his own copy of the book read by the circle. The National Home Reading Union (*q.v.*) suggests lists of books and supplies courses of notes upon them at a small charge. A circle may be formed of any body of people, young or old, who are agreed in having a common interest in the subject chosen for reading. A Sunday school class is excellent as to composition and size. It is obvious that all the members of one circle must be able to appreciate the selected grade of reading chosen from among the several prepared by the Union. Members for a circle may be found in any organisation for men or women, boys or girls. It is not indispensable, though it is generally desirable, for the same leader to direct the readers through the course. The house of the leader, if available, provides a good meeting place, as it introduces the social element, which is an important factor oftentimes in the success of the circle. But the circle may meet in a school-room or other available place. Sometimes a room can be had in the public library (*q.v.*). Special arrangements are made for the co-operation of public librarians. The leader will naturally open the proceedings, perhaps, with a sketch of the life of the author of the chosen

book. The members may read aloud the passages which have interested them during their reading in the intervals between the meetings, which may be monthly or more frequent. Portfolios of illustrations may be obtained from the Union upon payment of postage, and are useful in conducting the meetings. There is also a branch for the loan of books. The leader may act, or another member be chosen, as secretary, to be the means of communication with the central office and to forward the subscriptions.

Recidivists.—(See PRISONERS.)

Recovery of Cost of Relief.—(See also INDOOR RELIEF, MEDICAL RELIEF, OUTDOOR RELIEF and RELIEVING OFFICER.) The guardians have power to recover the cost of relief given to a poor person either from the pauper himself, the person liable for the support of his dependents, or certain relatives of the pauper. Relief may be given on loan and recovered in the county court or by attachment of wages. It is extremely desirable that, whenever possible, relief should be recovered by a firm and persistent policy from those liable, and it is unfortunate that, owing possibly to the uncertain and somewhat tedious procedure of the county courts, guardians are often reluctant to put the necessary machinery in motion. The Poor Law Commission Report of 1909 recommends a simplification of the procedure.

The legal liability of relatives should be strictly enforced, though there is general evidence that, when possible, children would gladly avoid paying anything towards the support of their parents, and that the varying practices of boards of guardians and the difficulties of obtaining sufficient information and making proper inquiries leave much to be desired in this respect. It is important also that relatives other

than those who are legally liable should be encouraged to assist whenever possible.

It would simplify procedure if opportunities were given to poor persons to proceed directly against their relatives who are liable, and if power were given to the local authorities to proceed against liable relatives before the applicant becomes actually chargeable and after he has ceased to be chargeable, for at present proceedings can only be instituted during the actual period of chargeability. Even under our present indefinite and varied policy, a considerable sum is annually obtained from persons relieved and those liable for their support; and it must be borne in mind that it is only just and reasonable that the best facilities should be given for the repayment of assistance given at the expense of the rate-payers by those who, being liable, are in a position to do so.

Recovery of Debt.—Generally, any sum which was intended by each of two parties to be paid by one of them in consideration of some benefit conferred by the other is a debt recoverable at law, so long as such service is neither illegal nor against public policy, such as betting debts; but there are exceptions: *e.g.*,

(1) if the debtor pleads infancy, the courts will not enforce payment except for such things as were reasonably necessary to the debtor, according to his station in life (see HIRE-PURCHASE AGREEMENTS); or

(2) if six years have elapsed since the sum first became due and since the last acknowledgment of such indebtedness by the debtor, the law does not permit payment to be enforced except in some special cases.

For sums up to £2, the registrar of a county court has jurisdiction. For sums up to £100 the county court has jurisdiction.

N.B. Where the amount, exclusive of costs, does not exceed £20, the judge, with or without the plaintiff's consent, may order the judgment and costs to be payable by instalments; but if the defendant fails to pay any one instalment, he immediately becomes liable (unless the judge orders otherwise) to execution for the whole amount remaining unpaid.

Under various statutes, a creditor can lodge a complaint against his debtor in the police court. Cab fares, sums paid by a surety, costs in police court cases, and of appeals, etc., can be so recovered, and debts so recoverable are called "civil debts." No warrant issues to apprehend a debtor who fails to appear to answer such complaint. The creditor obtains an order for payment of the debt and costs, but it will not be enforced by imprisonment unless the court is satisfied that the prisoner is able to pay. Such imprisonment is limited to six weeks, but the debtor cannot be committed more than once for the same debt. (An order for payment by instalments operates as a separate order for each instalment.) Imprisonment does not extinguish the debt, or deprive the creditor of the right to take out execution against the debtor's effects.

Recreation.—The importance of recreation for children and young people cannot be over-estimated. Until a comparatively short while ago, the only place open to the majority of city and town children in which to play was the street. Now local and education authorities are doing their best to supply the need for recreation grounds and organised games. In many educational areas the school playgrounds are now open for use before and after school, and on Saturday afternoons; while facilities have been given for the use of school premises for indoor recreation. This has been

taken up by the Children's Happy Evenings Association (*q.v.*) and the Guilds of Play and Evening Play Centres (*q.v.*), all of which provide for boys' and girls' indoor recreation, teaching them, in fact, how to play. Outdoor recreation is perhaps a more difficult problem, because of the necessity of open spaces. In London many of the parks have now been provided with out-of-door apparatus, and good use is made of the opportunities given. The provincial towns are doing the same; but another difficulty is to find the people who will teach the children games. In many cases, school teachers are doing this in their own time, and voluntarily. No less important is outdoor and indoor recreation for those who have left school (see **BOYS' CLUBS**, **GIRLS' CLUBS** and **WORKING MEN'S CLUBS**). In London the County Council provide football and cricket pitches in their parks for a limited number of teams. The number of teams, however, who wish for pitches is so large, that to divide the available grounds between them means that no one team can get a satisfactory season's play. For those who can afford to pay a small sum for their ground, the London Playing Fields Society (*q.v.*) provides a limited number of pitches. Men and boys are often blamed for going in large numbers to watch others play instead of playing themselves. The fault, however, does not rest entirely with those who watch. The difficulty in large towns is the provision of ground on which to play. If this could be overcome, many would be found who would make use of the opportunity given. Recreation, however, for lads and men, as well as for school children (see **SCHOOL TREATS**), needs guiding and teaching. (See also **CO-OPERATIVE HOLIDAYS ASSOCIATION**.) Many who have learnt at their public school or university the

delight of games are needed to help the working boy and man to learn the delights of cricket and football.

"Red Code, The."—(See NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS.)

Reformatory and Refuge Union.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Reformatory Schools.—(See HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS.)

Refugees.—(See UNDESIRABLE IMMIGRANTS.)

Refuges.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Register.—(See also ABSTRACT.) In every factory and workshop there is to be kept a register called the General Register, showing the prescribed particulars as to the number of children and young persons employed, the lime washing of the factory or workshop; every accident occurring, of which notice is required; every special exception of which the occupier avails himself; and such other matters as may be prescribed. If this is not done, the occupier is liable to a fine of £5.

Registrar-General.—The office of Registrar-General was created in 1836 to supervise the system of registration of births (*q.v.*), deaths, and marriages, which was established in a complete form throughout England for the first time in that year. The Poor Law Union is the unit for registration purposes, and superintendent registrars with registrars under them are appointed to carry out the duties. The registration of Nonconformist places of worship is also assigned to the Registrar-General. Certified copies of the registers are preserved at Somerset House, where searches through the indexes may be made and copies obtained at a small charge. To the Registrar-General is also entrusted the duty of taking the Census (*q.v.*), but with a special staff appointed for the purpose.

Registration of Assistance.—The Minority Report of the Poor Law Commission recommended the appointment by the county or county

borough council of one or more responsible officers by the title of Registrar of Public Assistance, with a threefold duty. They should be responsible for keeping a register with "case papers" (see CASE PAPER SYSTEM) of all persons receiving any form of public assistance within their districts, including treatment in any local institution. They should have the duty of assessing, in accordance with whatever may be the law, the charge to be made on individuals liable to pay any part of the cost of the service rendered to them or their dependents, or other relations, according to their means, and of recovering the amount thus due. Finally, that they should have submitted to them any proposals for the payment of outdoor relief (*q.v.*). The first of these duties has been undertaken, in some places, by voluntary co-operation between the charitable agencies in a defined area (see CHARITY ORGANISATION SOCIETY), with the approval and in some cases the active co-operation of local authorities (*q.v.*). The advocacy by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) of the adoption by the boards of guardians of the case paper system will facilitate, in due course, this co-operation. It is clear that whatever opinions may be held as to the share by officials in this registration of assistance, that action upon these lines is desirable for the protection of the supporters of the numerous charitable agencies and the needy, who may be thrust aside by the unscrupulous and undeserving.

Registration of Births.—(See also NOTIFICATION OF BIRTHS.) By the Births and Deaths Registration Act, 1874 (Section 2), it is enacted that in the case of every child born alive, it is the duty of the father or mother to register its birth within forty-two days thereof at the district office of the registrar of births, deaths, and

marriages. If the father or mother, for any reason, does not perform their legal duty and obligation, and fails to register the birth of the child, the legal duty and obligation devolves upon the occupier of the house in which the child was born, and upon any person having charge of or finding the child, and any person present at its birth. Any person finding a new-born, living child, or any person in whose charge it may have been placed, must register the birth within seven days. The name under which a child is registered may be altered within a year of registration, if due notice be given to the registrar.

If the child born is illegitimate, no person shall, as father of the child, be required to give any information of its birth to the registrar. The father's name shall not be entered in the books of the registrar unless both the father and the mother consent to the entry.

Non-registration of birth must not be confused with concealment of birth, which is the secret disposition by any person of the dead body of a child which died before, at, or after its birth, provided that it is at such a stage of development as is generally recognised as essential for the possession of capacity to survive birth.

Concealment of birth is a very serious offence in the eyes of the law, and a severe penalty may be incurred. The maximum penalty is two years' imprisonment with hard labour.

Registration of Death.—(See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Registry of Friendly Societies.—(See THRIFT.)

Regulations.—(See BYE-LAWS.)

Re-housing.—(See MUNICIPAL HOUSING.)

Relapsing Fever.—(See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Relief Committees.—(See PAROCHIAL RELIEF COMMITTEES

and POOR LAW RELIEF COMMITTEES.)

Relieving Officers.—(See also INDOOR RELIEF, OUTDOOR RELIEF, and RECOVERY OF COST OF RELIEF.) The duties of a relieving officer are laid down in the Consolidated Order of July 24, 1847. Briefly they are these: He is to receive applications for relief; to visit the home of the applicant; to carry out the orders and instructions of the guardians; make all necessary inquiries and report to the guardians. He is to visit from time to time persons in receipt of relief and to pay the relief ordered. In cases of sickness he is to procure medical attendance by an order on the medical officer (see MEDICAL RELIEF); to visit and to supply such necessities as may be ordered. In cases of urgent necessity, he is to supply relief by an order of admission to the workhouse (*q.v.*), and if necessary to arrange for the conveyance of the person, or he can give out-relief in kind. He has no power to give provisional relief in money, nor can that power be delegated to him by the guardians. A certain responsibility rests upon him to watch the case if the applicant declines to enter the workhouse, but it is generally recommended that this responsibility should be removed. He is to keep the application and report book, and enter fully all particulars as to the applicant, together with particulars as to the means of persons liable to maintain, and also details with regard to persons or relatives who, though not legally liable, might be able to assist, together with assistance from charitable or other sources. He is to notify the sanitary authority as to overcrowding (*q.v.*) or insanitary areas, and he has also certain duties and responsibilities with regard to vagrants (*q.v.*) and lunatics (*q.v.*) and their removal (see SETTLEMENT AND REMOVAL OF PAUPERS). He has

also to give information as to recipients of relief to the overseers (*q.v.*) or the clerk to the borough council for the purposes of the electoral register. He must live in that relief district and give his whole time to the work, though in certain unions he is allowed by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) to act as registrar, vaccination (*q.v.*) officer, etc. Formerly he had certain duties with regard to boarded-out children (see **BOARDING OUT**), but these duties are now taken away under the Boarding-out Order of 1909. He must be able to keep accounts. In some unions relieving officers have been appointed as infant protection visitors (see **INFANT LIFE PROTECTION**) under Section 2 of the Children Act (see **CHILDREN'S CHARTER**). The appointment of relieving officer is made by the guardians (*q.v.*), with the sanction of the Local Government Board, but having once made the appointment, the guardians cannot dismiss the officer without the sanction of the Local Government Board. The inspectors report to the Local Government Board generally that the relieving officers are, on the whole, a most deserving, hardworking, and devoted body of men, but that, as a rule, they have too many cases to look after and too large an area in which to work. Their cases should be limited to from 150 to 400, so as to ensure careful and prompt inquiries as to the circumstances of applicants and frequent visits to those in receipt of relief. Good work is being done by the visits of women relieving officers in certain unions.

It is essential that the right type of man should be appointed; that he should be possessed of sympathy and firmness, faithfulness and intelligence, and that he should be both gentle and strong; able to act with impartiality and full knowledge, and that a right relationship

between the guardians and their officers should be preserved. He should, if possible, have been specially trained for his work; and the School of Sociology (*q.v.*), by means of lectures and examinations, makes provision for such training (see **POOR LAW EXAMINATIONS BOARD**).

Remand Homes.—(See also **CHILDREN'S COURTS** and **JUVENILE OFFENDERS**.) Remand homes, or "places of detention" as they are termed in the Children Act (see **CHILDREN'S CHARTER**) of 1908 (Sections 109, 110), are premises in which children and young persons under sixteen who are brought before the courts, and whose trial cannot be completed until a later date, may be kept during the interval. For some time previous to the passing of the Act it had been the common practice in London and the larger cities for juveniles awaiting trial to be placed under the care of the authorities of various homes for children existing in such centres, but there was nothing in the law to prevent remanded children being sent to prison. By the Children Act it was enacted that no child or young person should be committed to prison while awaiting trial, and that suitable premises for the detention of such offenders should be provided. Under Section 107 (K), of the Act it is also provided that a child or young person convicted of an offence may be committed to a remand home for such period as the magistrate may decide, and be deemed under Section 109 (2), to be in legal custody.

Unfortunately the Act is not yet being rigorously enforced, for in many districts other than the large cities no proper places of detention have been arranged, and children on remand are being sent to the local workhouses (*q.v.*), a method upon every ground entirely undesirable. Birmingham (see also

PROBATION OFFICERS) claims to have opened, in December, 1909, the first remand home specially built and fully equipped for the purpose.

Removal of Paupers.—(See SETTLEMENT AND REMOVAL OF PAUPERS.)

Rent Book.—(See LANDLORD AND TENANT.)

Rent Collecting.—(See LADY RENT COLLECTORS.)

Repair of Premises.—(See CLOSING ORDERS, LANDLORD AND TENANT and NUISANCES.)

Rescue Work.—It would be of considerable advantage if all interested in rescue work would agree to attach a definite meaning to the terms they use, thus:—

1. *Magdalen Institution.* A general term for any home or institution for helping fallen women or girls.

2. *Home.* An institution for the reception of penitent women, where they remain under training for a period of not less than six months.

3. *Refuge.* A house of probation (generally connected with a home), where the girls are retained for periods of less than six months, pending their admission to a home or their disposal otherwise.

4. *Shelter.* A house where girls are received for not more than two or three days.

5. *Open All Night Shelter or Refuge.* A shelter or a refuge that is open at all hours of the night (ordinary refuges are not open all night). No proper training can be expected in such a refuge, as there are no arrangements for it; therefore the girls should not be kept there for long periods.

6. *Mission House.* A temporary house of reception for girls brought in by missionaries and other outdoor workers. The girls are retained pending inquiries and arrangements being made, whether for admission to homes or for restoration to friends, or for suitable employment.

7. *Maternity Home.* A house for the reception of girls previous to confinement. They are usually sent to an infirmary or maternity hospital for confinement, and subsequently, as soon as practicable, return to the maternity home.

8. *Medical Home.* A home receiving cases which would be otherwise eligible for a lock ward only.

9. *Retreat.* A home for inebriates only (see INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES).

10. *Children's Rescue Home.* A home for training children under fourteen years of age who have fallen.

11. *Cases.* Some objection has been made to the use of this term, because it is supposed to indicate an undesirable "professionalism" and a lack of feeling. But it is suggested that there is no other word that will convey the general idea of girls or women requiring help of some kind.

12. *Preventive Case.* This term should only be applied to a girl known to be unfallen, but in danger. The expression *uncertain case* should be used to convey the idea that it is very doubtful whether she is fallen or unfallen.

13. *Hopeless Case.* This term should never be used without some qualification, and then only concerning one who has been repeatedly helped, with no apparently good result.

14. *Girls.* The common use of this term is open to objection. It is hardly reasonable to use it in reference to women above a certain age.

15. *Penitent* is happily less frequently used than formerly, as applied to every inmate of a home, but this is no reason why the thing signified by the word should be less sought. There is just a little danger of not looking for true penitence, and not striving after it. It need not be very demonstrative, but

there should be some certain indication of it in every inmate of a home before she leaves it, or the hope of her real reformation must be faint indeed. While, therefore, the familiar and general speaking of these girls as "penitents" is undesirable, the word should not be abandoned in private consultation concerning a girl's training and disposal.

16. *Penitentiary*. Partly for the above reason, this word should as much as possible be given up as the term for a home. In America, the word penitentiary describes a place of reception and training to which women are committed by the criminal courts; in fact, in some places they are nothing less than prisons, which is another objection to the general use of the word for a home in which a woman is a voluntary inmate. A few of the old homes have the word "penitentiary" as part of their title, and this probably cannot at once be altered.

17. *Unfortunate*. *Misfortune*. In speaking to fellow-workers, it is always desirable to be as distinct as possible. The world speaks of a fallen woman as an *unfortunate*, and there is a certain class of masculine women who object to a woman who has lost her virtue being spoken of as *fallen*; but the latter expression has at least the advantage of veracity. Nor are the words *misfortune* and *trouble*, as often used, free from the objection of causing great confusion and inconvenience.

18. *Rescue Work* and *Rescue Worker* may be regarded as general terms applying to all classes of work amongst all sections of the fallen, the word *fallen* being, for convenience, applied to only one class of sin when used in connection with work amongst the outcast.

Rescue Work, Books and Pamphlets on.—*Rescue Work*, by Rev. A.

Brinckman (price 1s.); *Hints to Rescue Workers*, by Arthur J. S. Maddison (price 3s. 6d.); *A Simple Handbook for Beginners in Rescue Work*, by Lucy Colson; *Hints and Suggestions on the Formation of Workhouse Aid Committees*; *The Spread of Immorality amongst Children*, by Rev. T. G. Cree; *Classified List of Child-Saving Institutions* (price 1s. 6d.); *Book of Law* (price 2s. 6d.); *Some Experiences of Work Amongst Girls and Women, and the Conclusions they led to*, by Alice W. Bardsley. All these can be obtained of the Female Aid Society, Victoria House, 117 Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.

Rescue Work, Classification of Girls.—This is a matter of the first consideration in all reformatory work, and presents many difficulties.

The following is a brief classification:—

1. *Fallen*—*Not on the Street*: (a) awaiting confinement; (b) with an infant; (c) not pregnant; (d) dishonest; (e) children; (f) well educated.

2. *Fallen*—*On the Street*: (a) old; (b) young; (c) dishonest.

3. *Supposed to be Unfallen*, but with much knowledge of evil.

It is often very difficult, while a girl is in a mission house or a refuge, to find out to which of the above classes she really belongs, and yet, until this is done, it is almost impossible to know how to act for her best welfare.

Rescue Work, Classification of Institutions.—Magdalen institutions, as at present established, may be classified roughly as follows:

(a) Temporary shelters, mission houses, refuges; (b) homes; (c) maternity homes and hospitals; (d) medical homes; (e) children's homes; (f) permanent homes and cottage laundries.

It is impracticable in a book of general reference to set out the

exact purpose of each class of institution. On this and other details reference should be made to *Hints on Rescue Work*, published by the Reformatory and Refuge Union, Victoria House, 117, Victoria Street, S.W.

Rescue Work, Co-operation in.—Co-operation amongst Rescue Workers is most important. There should be a centre around which all work, not in order that the centre should exercise any authority over the workers, but that they should be able to look to it for information, and for organisation of any schemes requiring united action.

The Female Aid Society of the Reformatory and Refuge Union is recognised as a centre of co-operation, and for many years has summoned to its periodical conferences all rescue workers in all parts of the kingdom. It has issued, from time to time, small publications likely to be helpful to the workers generally; and, as a result of the conferences, it circulates quarterly, *Notes on Penitentiary Work and the Cautionary List*. All rescue workers should not only read this, but endeavour to share in making it more useful. The Society is also a valuable centre of information and aid.

The managers of any home or rescue society may rely upon inquiries being made in the Metropolis, and any information being obtained which it is in the power of the secretary and officers to secure.

With a full forty-eight hours' notice, girls can be met in London and seen to their situations, or passed from home to home. A list of the homes in the United Kingdom is published by the Society. There is, therefore, an effectual centre for co-operation amongst the workers, and it only remains for them to use it more thoroughly.

Amongst the other facilities offered by this centre is a register of workers seeking work, and a fund for the benefit of aged and distressed workers.

As regards co-operation with vigilance workers, the practice of different vigilance societies varies considerably. Some have much sympathy with the difficulties of rescue workers, and are cautious not in any way to prejudice their influence. The rescue worker will often find the need of the help which a well organised vigilance society can render, and the vigilance society should avail itself of the services of the rescue worker in providing shelter and care for the younger women.

With the police it is always desirable to keep on friendly terms, if possible. Their help may be needed at any moment in a variety of ways, and occasionally they may require the help and co-operation of the rescue worker, which should not be withheld (see POLICE AND SOCIAL WORKERS).

Missionaries and all rescue workers would do well to be in touch with their local Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) committee. The secretary will often be glad to consult the rescue worker, and she, in turn, will not infrequently find occasion to ask the help of the Charity Organisation Society.

Of course, co-operation with the clergy is essential. Every minister of religion should be informed of the nearest and most available rescue agencies to his parish. Often his advice, founded upon his past experience of girls who have lived in his parish, or been under his influence, and teaching, will be required. He may be able to collect clothes and money, and, on the other hand, any cases he sends to the missionary or superintendent will, if possible, either be

admitted or passed on to a distant mission house or home.

Too often it is found that more than one agency is trying to persuade a woman to go into a home. When this is the case, the woman is apt to imagine that she will be conferring a great favour by accepting an offer of help, and that those who importune her derive some pecuniary gain by her entering a home. As soon as it is discovered that another agency is interested in the woman, steps should be taken to ensure co-operation.

Rescue Work, Immorality amongst Children.—Very little is suspected and still less known as to the prevalence of immorality amongst children under sixteen years of age. One of the great causes of the spread of the evil is that discipline and self-restraint are not inculcated as they ought to be by parents and teachers. From their earliest years children should be taught and shown the manliness and nobility of self-restraint and unselfishness. Without these, all that is animal within must grow stronger until it gains the mastery; with these, all that is noble will rise supreme. Another source of the evil is the fact that children are allowed to grow up utterly unwarned as to this evil to which, in the vast majority of cases, they will be exposed. *A Mother's Part*, published by the White Cross League, admirably deals with this point, both as to the danger of neglecting instruction on this matter and how that instruction can best be given. Another cause is the companionship with those who have already "fallen." Under the present system of education, children from all classes of homes are compelled to be together. Children from bad homes and good—some who have been carefully guarded from evil, others who have been allowed to mix with the very lowest—all meet

in school and playground, and in their walks homeward.

What wonder, then, if they talk of, and even try to practise, what they have in some way learnt. This is not an imaginary source of evil. There is also the danger which arises from the growing custom of allowing young boys and girls to travel by train together to school (see also CO-EDUCATION). There is very often a vast amount of rough play amongst them which ought not to be. What can be done to check the evil? So far as it is possible, cases should be isolated. Under the Children Act, children can be committed to the care of guardians for five years, and these guardians are responsible for them, and have the entire control under Government supervision. For such cases grants can be made from 8s. to 10s. a week. This applies to cases where a child who has fallen has been convicted of some misdemeanour.

Under the Children Act (Section 16), it is a crime punishable with a fine of £25 and six months' imprisonment, for a person who has the custody, charge, or care of a child over four years old, to allow such a child to reside in or frequent a house of ill-fame.

Under Section 17 it is a crime punishable by two years' hard labour for a person having the charge, custody, or care of a child under sixteen years of age, to cause or encourage her seduction (*q.v.*) or prostitution, or allow her to consort with or enter or continue in the employment of any prostitute of notorious evil character.

Under Section 18, where a child is, with the knowledge of her parent or guardian, exposed to risk of seduction or prostitution, her parent or guardian may, on the complaint of any person, be bound over to exercise due care and supervision in respect of such girl.

The Act also provides that a constable or any person authorised by a justice (as, for example, a police court missionary (*q.v.*) or rescue worker, who has obtained such authority) may take to a place of safety, *i.e.*, any suitable place, the occupier of which is willing temporarily to receive the child in respect of whom any of the above offences has been or is reasonably believed to have been committed. In this place of safety she can be retained until a Court of summary jurisdiction has decided whether or not the charge has been proved. If proved, then the Court may order the child to be retained by a "fit person," out of whose custody it is an offence punishable with fine and imprisonment to assist or induce the child to leave, or conceal, harbour, or prevent returning to the person to whom it has been entrusted, and the Court may make an order of maintenance of the child on the parent or other person liable, to an amount not exceeding £1 a week, payable to the person to whom the child has been entrusted. There remain such cases of known "falls" about which there can be no prosecution owing to lapse of time or other causes. These can only be dealt with through the tact and energy of rescue workers.

Special homes have been provided, and more are needed for such children.

Rescue Work, Outdoor.—An essential requisite in starting rescue work in any place is the missionary, who will seek out the fallen girls, show them that she wishes to befriend them, and let them know that there is someone at hand who cares for them, and is ready to help to raise them up. This must not be the person who has charge of the temporary home or mission house in which the girls she may influence are received. In charge of that there must be a matron or indoor

missionary. The outdoor missionary must be quite free to go when and where she is required.

Such a missionary must be strong, and have good health and a cheerful spirit. She should have a good temper, and not be ready to take offence, and should work well with others, be quiet in manner, but eager at heart for her work, with quick sight and hearing, and a power of knowing faces again when once seen.

The missionary cannot expect to help any who are not willing to be helped. They cannot be forced or cajoled, and it is fatal to the work to misrepresent what can be done for them. If a girl cannot be persuaded, she must be left for the time; though prayer remains as a means of help.

The work of the outdoor missionary will comprise:—

(1) Visiting the streets at such times as she is most likely to find the girls she is seeking; the time for this work will vary in different localities; there is not so much scope for work at night as there used to be. Parks are generally best visited at dusk or in the early morning, and railway stations at special times; the worker must find out by experience when and where her presence is most required.

(2) She will speak to any that can be addressed when alone, if occasion serve, and tell them that she is a friend ready and able to help.

(3) She will have at hand, for wise distribution, some small books or cards with her name and address, or that of the mission house written on them.

(4) She will attend the police courts (see POLICE AND SOCIAL WORKERS) and take charge of any girl the magistrates may wish to place under the care of a rescue association. If there is a police

court missionary (*q.v.*), she will co-operate with him or her.

(5) She will co-operate with the prison chaplain and the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society (*q.v.*).

(6) She will visit the lock ward (see LOCK CASES) of the infirmary (*q.v.*) or workhouse (*q.v.*), with a view to influencing those who may be leaving.

(7) She will follow up cases met with in the streets, and such as may be heard of while doing so; one case successfully dealt with often leads to another.

(8) She will travel with girls going to distant homes, or make arrangements for their journey and see them off in charge of the guard.

To facilitate the sending of girls by rail with safety, copies of the following form may be obtained from the Female Aid Society, Victoria House, 117, Victoria Street, London, S.W., at 3d. a dozen.

"Instructions for the Guidance of Young Women sent by Railway:

"1st. Those who send young women by railway should be careful to see that they are supplied with a copy of these instructions before starting.

"2nd. The young woman on arriving at a station should hold these instructions in her hand folded, until spoken to by the messenger, who may be known by the fact of her having a corresponding paper.

"3rd. If the messenger should not arrive in time to meet the train, the holder of these instructions should go into the waiting room, and there remain with her luggage until the messenger arrives.

"4th. But, if through any mistake, the messenger does not arrive within half an hour, the holder of these instructions should consult a railway official as to the best means of getting to (insert full address).

"* * * Railway porters all wear uniform and have numbers.

"(Two copies of these instructions should be filled up by the friend of the passenger, one copy to be sent to the person expected to meet her, if possible, two days before the young woman starts, and one to be given to her to hold in her hand at the station at which she is to be met.)"

Rescue Work, Points of Law.—

If a rescue worker has a friend who is a barrister or solicitor, and is in sympathy with her, it will be a great help to her on many occasions; for she cannot afford in every matter of doubt and legal difficulty to pay for professional advice and service. (See also POOR MAN'S LAWYER.)

Debts to Landladies. One of the first and commonest difficulties is to know how to deal with a girl who says she would leave her sinful life at once if she could pay what she owes her landlady. It should be clearly understood that debts from prostitutes to their landladies for board and lodging are not recoverable (see RECOVERY OF DEBT). But one hesitates sometimes to stifle the spark of honesty manifested in a girl who objects to leaving her room without notice or payment for what is due for rent and food. As a rule, however, nothing should be paid for any girls' debts to any keeper of a house who must have known very well that the girl was living in sin. If, under exceptional circumstances, anything is paid, a shilling a day for bed and board would be ample. But, it may be asked, cannot the landlady keep the girl's box of clothes?

Detention of Clothes for Rent. It is not lawful to detain wearing apparel for rent under any circumstances, and if a landlady refuses to deliver up a girl's clothes, a magistrate, on application being made to him, will generally instruct a policeman to go with the missionary and see the boxes given up.

Recovery of Clothes belonging to Institutions. If a girl runs away from a mission house or from a home, with clothes that have been lent her to wear, it is not likely that a magistrate will order them to be given up or punish the girl for absconding.

Interference by Parents or Relatives. Parents or guardians have no power to interfere compulsorily with a girl over sixteen years of age when in a home; they cannot compel her to leave if she wishes to remain, nor can they compel the managers of the home to allow them to see her.

Compulsory Removal of Girl from a Home. When a girl becomes violent and unmanageable and quarrelsome, it is often difficult to know what to do with her. It is felt that no good is being done for her, and that she is doing harm in the home. The difficulty is increased if she declines to leave the home when requested. In these circumstances, it is by far the wisest course to persuade her to leave peaceably, for if compulsion is exercised, it is not unlikely that such a character will vent her rage by destruction of some sort, and the windows of the building are not unlikely to suffer, if not immediately, at some subsequent date; and, unfortunately, there is very little redress. For protection against cases of this sort, the "Cautionary List" has been found very valuable. As regards their compulsory removal from the premises by the police, the latter are not generally willing to enter a home to remove a girl; and, unless there is danger to life, it is difficult to persuade them to do so.

In an extreme case, an application to a magistrate might probably result in the dispatch of a constable to be present when the girl is turned out; and his presence and warning would in all probability have the effect of inducing a peaceful departure.

Obligation of Workhouse Master (q.v.) to Receive a Girl. Various reasons may necessitate the removal of girls to the workhouse. A girl, if found in the streets late at night, expressing a desire to leave her evil life, may, usually with advantage, be taken to the casual ward (q.v.) for one night, with a promise to admit her to a refuge or mission house early the next morning. It will be well if there be a friendly understanding between the master of the casual ward and the missionary of the district with regard to such cases; but, if not, he cannot refuse shelter. With regard to girls who have been admitted into homes or mission houses, the workhouse authorities rightly complain if girls are brought from other districts and are subsequently sent into the workhouse. So that when, for any cause, a girl in a mission house or a home has to be sent into the workhouse, it is generally desirable to send her back into her own district to lodge for one night, in order that she may enter the workhouse of the district from which the home received her. Nevertheless, the fact remains that a girl can claim admission to the workhouse of the parish in which she slept the previous night.

Hawkers Selling to Girls in Service. A serious danger to young girls placed out in domestic service arises from the practice of hawkers calling and persuading them to buy watches or trumpery jewellery and other articles on trust.

In one case a watch was left in the hands of a girl in this way a few days after she had gone to her situation and without her paying a farthing. Managers of homes should warn the girls against this snare before placing them in service. As regards girls under age, it may be useful to note that a person under twenty-one years of age cannot bind himself or pledge his credit

except for necessities. When, therefore, a young girl is over-persuaded into buying a watch or a sewing-machine, which is not necessary for a girl in her position, and for which the purchase money is to be paid in instalments (see HIRE PURCHASE AGREEMENTS), the girl, if she does not want what she has bought, should return it with an intimation that she is under age.

Rescue Work, Prejudice against Homes.—Although the number of young women cared for from year to year by the various rescue agencies throughout the country is very great, a surprisingly small proportion is sent to homes. The reason of this is that a very strong prejudice exists, especially among the younger girls, against going to a home. For the most part, this prejudice is unfounded: girls who have entered homes with no real intention to reform have proved failures, and, after leaving the homes, have circulated an evil report concerning them—they have blackened the homes to whiten themselves. On the other hand, instances are on record of unwise and inconsiderate treatment of girls in the homes, of girls being sent to homes for which they were unsuitable, of others being indiscreetly placed out from the homes. Needless to say, such mistakes have been magnified by bad women.

The prejudice referred to is one of the chief hindrances to the work, and every legitimate effort should be made to remove it. Every class of worker may bear a part in this: Missionaries, by carefully investigating and classifying their cases, sending to homes only such as are likely to benefit by the training given there, and by not in any way misrepresenting the character of the homes; committees of homes, by taking more than a nominal interest in the girls, and by looking for something far higher than a

pecuniary profit from the laundry; superintendents, by seeking to secure not only order and good conduct within the walls of the institutions, but also the future happiness in this world and the eternal salvation of those committed to their charge.

Rescue Work, Selection of Cases.

—All first maternity cases may be helped quickly, unless very hardened and impenitent, but it is wise to inquire carefully whether the girl's family cannot, and ought not, to help her. Other maternity cases may be helped equally successfully in the end. As a reform of character must always be the aim of the worker, if the mother really regrets the past and desires to lead a new life, second cases may be as hopeful as others. It is wise, however, if funds allow, to make use of short homes or mission houses in almost all cases, to start the girls; and it is better for workers to make use of some existing home, than to undertake the great responsibility of starting a home.

At a home the matron becomes a friend to the girl, who may be otherwise friendless, and is someone to whom the girl may go afterwards for advice in any difficulty. When the girl is ready for service, if no friend of her own will take the child, a nurse must be found for it. In really poor cases, it is best that the mother should be responsible herself for the payment, though help must be given for clothes and needful expenses. The matron of the home will often take care that the nurse is paid and sufficient help given to the mother. This is advised, because in second cases it is so frequently found that the responsibility of the first child has been removed from the mother, either by its death or by the giving of too much help; and the second child has come as a matter of course.

The hon. secretary of a workhouse visiting committee says: "If the mother is of previously good character, we help her to obtain a situation, and find a nurse for the child, the mother paying generally 4s. a week and the committee 1s. If the girl has no friends to help her, the nurse is paid by the committee weekly, and the girl repays the committee when she receives her wage. If the girl is very young, and we think that a home will be beneficial, we send her to one, provided she is willing to go."

About £2 or £3 is wanted to start each case of this kind. Such work is not merely reformatory, but also preventive. The woman would probably sink lower without this help, which, by affording her hope and encouragement to do her duty to her infant, will improve her character and the child's fate both here and hereafter. Few women are entirely without thought at such times, though often hopeless and despairing when looking forward to their future.

If our workhouses (*q.v.*) could be made as many starting points for work of this kind, various ways of help would open out, and many a wronged, mispent life might be saved from ruin (see GUARDIANS, VOLUNTARY WORK OF).

The Association of Workhouse Aid Societies, at Victoria House, 117, Victoria Street, S.W., promotes the establishment of workhouse aid committees and co-operation amongst the societies.

Rescue Work, Suggestions to Outdoor Missionaries.—(1) Never let anything induce you to eat or drink the smallest thing in a bad house, and do not stand near a table, or where a person would come up behind you unawares.

(2) Be on your guard if the woman keeping the house, or anyone in it, offers you anything to smell.

(3) Stand, if possible, near the door, and see that it is, not shut upon you; at the same time, avoid any appearance of suspicion or fright.

(4) Whatever may meet your eyes, make no observation upon it, and do not appear to see anything but the business upon which you have come.

(5) Always keep eye and ear open as to any children about. The law now can be successfully used to prevent them from being brought up in such places, and a word to the Secretary of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (*q.v.*), or the Children's Aid Society in London, will generally suffice.

(6) Be well acquainted with the law on all points which affect rescue work.

(7) Be on friendly terms with the police (see POLICE AND SOCIAL WORKERS) without being intimate with individual policemen. Where it is possible, deal with the superintendent of police, and when a case is committed to them let them work it out in their own way; leave it to them and let them have the credit. Their help is often needed to recover the box of clothes belonging to a rescued girl and in such matters.

(8) In dealing with girls, be careful not to make promises as to what can be done, how long they must stay in a home, or when a place of service can be got for them. Always speak the truth to them, and do not try to save them by any misrepresentation of facts. Better lose a case for a time than deceive them in any way.

(9) A register should be kept in which each case dealt with is entered, with necessary addresses and dates, indexed for future reference, and added to if anything further is done. The book should be carefully kept under lock and

key, and seen by no one but the missionary.

(10) Even the dress of the missionary is of importance. It should be dark, and not easily seen at a distance, neat and scrupulously clean, but not observable; black is really the best wear for the work. At the same time, it is desirable that the dress should be becoming. A uniform is not recommended.

Rescue Work, Women with Children.—These are some of the most difficult cases to deal with. A woman will often say that she must supplement her earnings by sin, in order to support her child or children. A woman can very often support one child by honest industry if it is boarded out. In any case, the missionary should, if possible, see the child or children and the foster-mother. If convinced that the mother is paying more for the maintenance than she could honestly earn, the foster-mother may be induced to make a smaller charge, or it may be found possible to interest friends to contribute a little to the cost of the maintenance, so as to reduce the amount to what the mother can pay out of her fair wages. In that case the missionary should satisfy herself that the mother does not continue in sin, and that the child is properly cared for.

Indiscriminate visitation of bad houses is not desirable. It seems necessary to mention this, lest the previous observations should be misconstrued. They only have reference to visits paid to girls already known to the missionary.

Reserve of Labour.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Restaurant Work.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Retreats.—(See RESCUE WORK.)

Rewards for Bravery.—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.)

Rivet Boys.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Road Board.—(See also ROADS IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATION.) The

second part of the Development Act (*q.v.*) establishes a Road Board, which shall have power, with the approval of the Treasury—

(a) to make advances to county councils (*q.v.*) and other highway authorities in respect of the construction of new roads, or the improvement of existing roads;

(b) to construct and maintain any new roads;

which appear to the Board to be required for facilitating road traffic.

(1) Where the Treasury have approved a proposal by the Road Board to construct a new road under this part of this Act, the Board may acquire land for the purpose, and may, in addition, *acquire land on either side of the proposed road within 220 yards from the middle of the proposed road.*

(2) The Road Board may acquire, erect, and furnish such offices and other buildings as they may require, and may acquire land for the purpose.

(3) Where a highway authority is authorised to construct a new road under this part of this Act, or an advance is made to such an authority in respect of the improvement of an existing road, the authority may acquire land for the purpose of such construction or improvement.

(4) The Road Board shall have full power with the approval of the Treasury, to sell, lease, and manage any land acquired by them under this part of this Act, and not required for the new road, and any receipts derived from any such land, so far as they are applied for the purposes of the construction of new roads, shall not be treated as part of the expenditure of the Road Board on new roads for the purpose of the provisions of this Act limiting the amount of expenditure of the Road Board on new roads.

(5) The sums expended by the Road Board out of income on the

construction of new roads or the acquisition of land, or in respect of any loan raised for any such purpose, shall not in any year exceed one-third of the estimated receipts of the Road Board for that year.

(6) All expenses of the Road Board under this part of this Act, including the salary of the chairman or vice-chairman and the salaries and the remuneration of officers and servants, to such amount as may be sanctioned by the Treasury, shall be defrayed out of the road improvement grant.

Rowton Houses.—(See COMMON LODGING HOUSES and MODEL LODGING HOUSES.)

Royal Agricultural Society.—(See AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.)

Royal British Nurses' Association.—(See also DISTRICT NURSING, MIDWIVES, QUEEN VICTORIA JUBILEE INSTITUTE FOR NURSES, SICK ROOM HELP SOCIETY and VILLAGE NURSING.) This Association was founded in 1877 "for the purposes of the improvement of the profession of nurses, and of the promotion of their efficiency and usefulness, and of assisting them by various benevolent schemes."

In 1893 the Association was incorporated by Royal Charter, and the purposes of the corporation are described in the charter as follows :—

(1) The founding and maintenance of schemes for the benefit of nurses in the practice of their profession and in times of adversity, sickness, and old age.

(2) The maintenance of an office or offices for supplying information to persons seeking for nurses and to persons seeking for employment as nurses.

(3) The maintenance and publication of a list of persons who may have applied to the corporation to have their names entered therein as nurses, whom the corporation may think fit to enter therein from

time to time, coupled with such information about each person so entered as to the corporation may from time to time seem desirable.

(4) The promotion of conferences, public meetings, and lectures in connection with the general work of the corporation.

(5) The doing anything incidental or conducive to carrying into effect the foregoing purposes.

The members of the Association are trained nurses or medical men ; it is governed by a general council and executive committee, consisting partly of nurses and partly of medical men.

The qualifications of each candidate for nurse membership are carefully examined by a registration board, and, in addition to satisfactory evidence as to character, it is necessary to produce proofs of having been trained for at least three years in recognised hospitals containing not less than forty beds (see HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING).

The Association seeks, by publishing the names and qualifications of trained nurses, to protect the public against unskilled and untrustworthy women.

A benevolent fund has been established in order to afford temporary assistance to nurses who may be incapacitated by illness or other causes, and are in need of such assistance.

Opportunity of obtaining employment as private nurses on the co-operative principle is afforded to many nurse members.

It is the aim of those, upon whom devolves the duty of fulfilling the above-mentioned purposes, not to enter into competition with public and private agencies which may be working independently and efficiently to supply the needs of the public.

There is a club-room for the use of nurse members, and an excellent library of technical books.

The offices of the Association, 10, Orchard Street, London, W., are open to nurses wishing to obtain information and advice, and to members of the public who may be interested in subjects relating to nursing, or desire information as to the supply of skilful and reliable nurses.

Royal College of Art.—(See also SCHOOLS OF ART.) The incorporation of the Science and Art Department with the Board of Education (*q.v.*) led to a reorganisation of the Royal College of Art. "The College is mainly attended by assisted students, who are admitted without fee, who also in some cases receive maintenance from national or local funds. These assisted students are of three types. Some of them are teachers of art or intending teachers of art, who are admitted as students in training, with a view to receiving training in the teaching of art subjects, and pass through a course of instruction which terminates in a full associateship of the College, and covers work done in all its four schools, known as the 'School of Architecture,' the 'School of Ornament and Design,' the 'School of Decorative Painting,' and the 'School of Sculpture and Modelling.' Others, including the 'National Scholars,' are persons who have been in actual employment in some trade which depends on decorative art, and have at the same time been registered in an approved School of Art (see SCHOOLS OF ART) in the United Kingdom. These are admitted with a view to improving their qualifications as art workers for architecture, manufactures, and decoration, by means of a course terminating in a schools' associateship, and covering the work of one of the four schools. Others, again, including the 'Royal Exhibitioners' and 'Local Exhibitioners,' are admitted with an option to proceed either to the full

associateship or to the schools' associateship. Students in training are selected after a consideration of works submitted by them, in order to show their proficiency in the more advanced branches of art. Other assisted students are, as a rule, selected by means of competitions based upon the annual examinations in art held by the Board. Assistance in the form of 'Royal College of Art Scholarships' or 'Junior Art Scholarships' is also awarded to students of the College as a result of proficiency shown during their course." Fee paying students are also admitted to the College according to the available accommodation. The information here given is taken from the annual report for 1908-9, laid before Parliament (see PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS). It may be supplemented by the Report of a Departmental Committee which considered in 1911 the functions and constitution of the College.

Royal Commission on Afforestation.—(See AFFORESTATION.)

Royal Commission on Poor Laws and Relief of Distress.—(See POOR LAW REFORM.)

Royal Commission on the Care and Control of the Feeble-minded.—(See also AFTER-CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN, HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, and NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.) This Commission was appointed in September, 1904, and published its Report in 1908. The summary and recommendations are contained in vol. viii. Reports of medical investigators and others are given in seven additional volumes of evidence (see PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS).

The terms of the original reference were: "To consider the existing methods of dealing with idiots and epileptics (*q.v.*), and with imbecile, feeble-minded, or defective

persons not certified under the lunacy laws ; and in view of the hardship or danger resulting to such persons and the community from insufficient provision for their care, training, and control, to report as to the amendments in the law or other measures which should be adopted in the matter, due regard being had to the expense involved in any such proposals, and to the best means of securing economy therein."

The terms of reference were extended in November, 1906, to "The care of lunatics (*q.v.*) and mental defectives," and to inquiry into the working of the Lunacy Commission and other lunacy authorities in England and Wales.

For some time before the appointment of the Commission, pressure had been brought to bear on members of Government, by charitable societies, and others interested, to establish some form of inquiry into the present condition and treatment of the feeble-minded. The urgent need of such an inquiry was fully recognised by the Commissioners who have thus forcibly stated the case. "Of the gravity of the present state of things there is no doubt, the mass of facts that we have collected, the statements of our witnesses, and our own personal visits and investigations compel the conclusion that there are numbers of mentally defective persons whose training is neglected, over whom no sufficient control is exercised, and whose wayward and irresponsible lives are productive of crime and misery, of much injury and mischief to themselves and to others, and of much continuous expenditure wasteful to the community and to individual families."

The question of definition and nomenclature presented a very serious difficulty from the outset, as in attempting to define the

different classes, it was recognised that all types of the mentally defective, from the border line of the normal down to the lowest type of idiocy, tend, without any formal line of demarcation, to merge subtly one into another. The definitions were only arrived at after a long and careful consultation of experts, and are here presented, as they will probably be found a useful guide for the social worker, who cannot fail to have been brought into contact with some types of the mentally abnormal, although probably seldom recognising their true condition. The term "mentally defective" was adopted by the Commissioners to designate all forms of mental abnormality included in the reference. The mentally defective are divided into nine classes: (1) Persons of unsound mind, who are generally known under the term "lunatic"; (2) persons mentally infirm, whose mental infirmity arises from age or decay; (3) idiots, so deeply defective in mind from birth or early age, that they are unable to guard themselves from common physical dangers; (4) imbeciles, capable of guarding themselves from common physical dangers, but incapable of earning their living by reason of mental defect existing from birth or from early age; (5) feeble-minded, persons capable of earning a living under favourable circumstances, but whose mental defect, existing from birth or from early age, renders them incapable of (a) competing on equal terms with their normal fellows, or (b) of managing themselves or their affairs with ordinary prudence; the "prodigal" and "facile" are included in these terms; (6) moral imbeciles, persons who from early age display some mental defect, coupled with strong vicious or criminal propensities, on which punishment has little or no deterrent effect; (7)

epileptics (*q.v.*) who are mentally defective; (8) inebriates (*q.v.*) who are mentally defective; (9) deaf and dumb, and blind, who are mentally defective. As an eminent medical authority has said, the definitions finally adopted must, even now, be regarded as offering social rather than scientific distinctions. On this account, however, they possess none the less interest for the social worker, who will not only recognise types with which he has dealt, but will not infrequently find that the mentally defective form the bulk of a class with which whole societies or agencies are already dealing, unaware of their true conditions.

The Royal Commission found chaotic methods of administration in the laws concerning the mentally defective, which gave no continuity of control. But one Act of Parliament existed with regard to the feeble-minded, the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1899, whose powers were permissive only and not compulsory (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT). Education authorities were empowered, therefore, but not compelled, to make provision for their defectives. Boards of guardians were empowered to pay up to the amount of 10s. weekly for adults (over sixteen), and 12s. 6d. weekly for the education of children, in recognised homes, or other suitable institutions, but had no powers of detention over such of the feeble-minded as needed this form of control. It was found that lunatic asylums (*q.v.*) were crowded with patients who might be treated by more economical methods, and quite as efficiently as in expensively equipped asylums. The medical investigators to the Royal Commission demonstrated that in many large urban areas and cities the mentally defective were found unsuitably or insufficiently provided

for, that is to say, in prisons, workhouses (*q.v.*) and institutions, where the question of their mental defect was left altogether out of sight. It was calculated that in England and Wales 66,000 mentally defective persons (including idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded, epileptics, and lunatics) were in urgent need of provision as either improperly, unsuitably, or unkindly cared for, or a source of danger to the community. Many agencies were found to be overlapping, while from want of co-ordination of the agencies, schemes for continuous care and control of the mentally defective were, at times, found to be impossible.

In the recommendations of the Commissioners, therefore, emphasis was laid on two requirements: (1) The need for unity of control in administration; (2) the need for continuity of control in the treatment of individuals. The proposals brought forward by the Commissioners to secure these ends are as follows: Three methods of dealing with the individual—(1) Oversight, (2) certification, and (3) detention are recommended to ensure permanent control; and it is urged that one central authority, which shall be called the Board of Control, shall deal with the whole class of the mentally defective. The Board shall be composed of paid Commissioners, and it should include experts and legal members. Local provision for all the nine classes of mental defectives defined as above is, under this scheme, to be made by the county councils (*q.v.*), which shall exercise authority through a statutory committee (see also POOR LAW REFORM). The total cost of maintenance, care, treatment, education, and control is, it is proposed, to be borne by the county councils, aided by grants from the Exchequer, while present grants shall be discontinued. A register is to be

kept by each local authority of all cases of mental defect coming under its jurisdiction, and the notification by all public authorities and charitable institutions of the mentally defective in their charge is to be compulsory. Elaborate preparations are made for (1) the yearly revision of all its mentally defective by each local authority, (2) the regulations as to their transfer from one private home or institution to another, (3) registration and inspection of all such homes and institutions. These form the chief contents of the remainder of the ninety-six recommendations. When all these intricate regulations are established, however, it is intended to include all establishments at present maintained at the expense of rates or voluntary contributions, thus rendering it possible, amidst the immense amount of new machinery to be set to work, to utilize the numbers of voluntary institutions and also the special schools of the education authorities now established.

The preamble summarises the aim of the scheme of the Royal Commissioners as being an "application of particular methods suitable for the cases of different persons, and not the general adoption of any one method exclusively."

It, therefore, appears to suggest measures which leave to administrators, and to the members of county councils, unusual initiative scope in making a choice of the instruments with which to carry out the designs of the Commissioners. Lastly, but not least, it appears to have left them the possibility of making many experiments. In view of the intricacies of the subject and the uncertain results of many of the educational and other methods involved, those who have brought forward such measures have shown much wisdom in offering as great elasticity as possible in

the provisions which they have suggested for future administration.

Royal Humane Society.—The idea of founding a society for the recovery of the apparently drowned first found expression on the Continent. The English Society was founded, in 1773, by Dr. Hawes, Dr. Cogan, and others. Its aim for a time was the subject of ridicule; but its value was recognised in due course, and now its activities are widespread. The grant of rewards for bravery (*q.v.*) is one of the chief. Under its auspices, buoys and drags have been widely distributed, boatmen are engaged to be at hand in case of need among the bathers in the Serpentine, during the skating season men are stationed where there is ice in London, the teaching of swimming has been encouraged in the schools, and opinion generally educated in regard to the objects of the Society.

Royal Institute of Public Health.—(See also NATIONAL HEALTH SOCIETY and ROYAL SANITARY INSTITUTE.) The Institute was founded in 1886 and incorporated in 1892 "to provide a central institution in London for training of medical practitioners desirous of obtaining the diploma in public health; to provide the means whereby municipal and other authorities can obtain reliable bacteriological and chemical analyses; and to aid the theoretical and practical investigation and study of all branches of preventive medicine." Through the *Journal*, published quarterly, and the annual congress much is done to enlighten public opinion upon important subjects respecting the health of the community. Besides the lectures for medical men, courses have been arranged for women health visitors (*q.v.*) and school nurses. The certificates of the Institute are recognised by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) for these offices.

Royal Life-Saving Society (8, Bayley Street, London, W.C.).—(See also BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR.) This Society was founded in 1891 to carry out four objects: (1) To promote technical education in life-saving and resuscitation of the apparently drowned; (2) to stimulate public opinion in favour of the general adoption of swimming and life-saving as a branch of instruction in schools, colleges, etc.; (3) to encourage floating, diving, plunging, and such other swimming arts as would be of assistance to a person endeavouring to save life; (4) to arrange and promote public lectures, demonstrations, and competitions, and to form classes of instruction, so as to bring about a widespread and thorough knowledge of the principles which underlie the art of swimming.

The large number of cases in which the drowning person has caused the death of his would-be rescuer through the latter's ignorance of life-saving, and the fatal delay in resuscitating those rescued in an unconscious condition, fully justify the existence of this Society. It carries on its work by means of classes for instruction, at which are taught the best methods of rescue and resuscitation. It recommends that medical men should give simple lectures on the air passages, lungs, and breathing, with explanations of the Schäfer method of restoring respiration (see ARTIFICIAL RESPIRATION). The Society makes annually a great number of awards of certificates, medallions, and diplomas to those who show proficiency in the art of life-saving. The number given in 1909 was 10,495.

Royal National Lifeboat Institution (22 Charing Cross Road, W.C.).—(See BRAVERY, REWARDS FOR, and HEROES, DEPENDENTS OF.)

Royal Normal College and Academy of Music.—(See BLIND,

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Royal Patriotic Fund Corporation.—(See also SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' FAMILIES ASSOCIATION.) The Corporation was re-organised by Act of Parliament after the South African War. The foundation of the fund was formed by the moneys raised for the benefit of the widows and orphans of sailors and soldiers who lost their lives during the Crimean War. It has received various additions from time to time, including the Indian Mutiny Relief Fund, the Zulu, Ashantee, and Transvaal War Funds. Although after the last war State pensions were granted to widows and allowances to children of soldiers dying within two years of removal from duty of wounds or disease, it was recognised that there still remained opportunity for private benevolence: (1) By supplementing Government pensions; (2) by providing for widows married off the strength and children of such marriages; (3) by aiding widows and children of Colonial soldiers; and (4) by providing for widows and children when the husband died, after the limit of two years, though clearly from wounds or disease contracted in the war. The general policy of the Corporation in the administration of its funds is to establish a standard of adequate relief according to the station in life of the beneficiaries, who include the dependents of all ranks, including and below sergeant-major and chief petty officer.

Royal Sanitary Institute.—(See also NATIONAL HEALTH SOCIETY and ROYAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC HEALTH.) In 1876, when the Sanitary Institute was formed, ignorance and indifference as to the value of good sanitation were widespread. A majority of the medical profession had not at that time realised the necessity for sanitation, with the result that very few houses were

well drained, and even Government offices and royal palaces were insanitary. There was no provision for the isolation of infectious diseases (*q.v.*). (See also ISOLATION HOSPITALS.) The watersupply (*q.v.*) nearly everywhere was indifferent or defective, and systems of drainage in many places were bad. There was little literature on the subject of sanitation, and that which existed was not readily accessible. There was no test of competence, and no means of training persons as sanitary officials existed, with the result that those who had to deal with public health possessed no accurate knowledge or information on the subject. To remedy this state of affairs, the Government, urged to do so by the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science and the British Medical Association, appointed a Sanitary Commission. In 1871, on the recommendation of that commission, the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) took the place of the Poor Law Board with wider powers, specially embracing the statutes having reference to sanitation. In 1875 the Public Health Act (*q.v.*) was passed, and the interest taken in sanitary science had so increased that the formation in the following year of the Royal Sanitary Institute was fully justified. The aim of the founders was to secure the enforcement of the laws of health, to diminish the death-rate, and to improve the physical and moral conditions of the people. They claimed that everyone inherits a right to good water, pure air, and a healthy dwelling-place. At the same time great progress was made in scientific knowledge on the subject of health. The result was a large expenditure on sanitation and great improvement in public health, an instance of which is the fall in the mortality rate of the more serious surgical operations in hospitals

from 37 per cent. to 2 per cent. During the last thirty years there has been a marked improvement in the methods of dealing with the spread of disease, and in the planning, construction, drainage, and ventilation of dwellings, schools, factories, and other buildings, with a reduction in the death rate (see PUBLIC HEALTH STATISTICS), and improvements in the physique and prosperity of the population.

One of the first steps taken by the Institute was to establish examinations for local surveyors and inspectors, but it was soon found that systematic courses of instruction were necessary, in order to prepare candidates for the examinations. Later examinations have been arranged for foremen of works, builders, and those engaged in allied trades, managers of property, teachers and lecturers, and others requiring thorough practical knowledge of sanitation. In 1907 the training lectures for sanitary officers were extended to the provinces and arranged in conjunction with the county councils (*q.v.*). The value of the lectures has been increased by the addition of practical demonstrations during the lectures, and by the organisation of visits of the students to sewage works, water works, and trade premises. The Institute has also arranged, in co-operation with the Royal Meteorological Society, to give lectures on "The Weather and Climate in Relation to Health and Disease" to medical officers of health (*q.v.*). Similarly, courses of instruction are given to sanitary officers, women health visitors (*q.v.*), school nurses, meat inspectors, etc. The Institute worked for many years in co-operation with the Parkes Museum, the objects of which were identical with those of the Institute. In 1888 they were amalgamated. The Institute organises meetings and congresses, the discussions at which

are an important means of spreading the advantages of its work throughout the country. A library, containing works on hygiene and sanitation, Parliamentary and official reports (see PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS), and transactions of other societies, is of great use to students. The Institute also publishes a monthly journal dealing with public health. The present head-quarters of the Institute are 90, Buckingham Palace Road, London.

Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.—(See also ANIMALS, CRUELTY TO.) The Society was founded in 1824, and in pursuance of its object has disseminated literature, inculcated humanity into the minds of the young, aroused attention to its aims through the Press, and prosecuted flagrant acts of cruelty. The Society awards medals and diplomas to those who save the lives of animals at the risk of their own lives. A large staff of inspectors is employed to detect cases of cruelty. By means of bands of mercy useful work is done in teaching children. The organisation may readily be worked in conjunction with a Band of Hope. Two magazines—*The Animal World* and *Band of Mercy*—are published by the Society to further its work.

Rural Development.—An important question occupying the minds of reformers of all shades of opinion to-day is how best to establish a proper system of national development which shall provide for the organised dispersion of the population of overcrowded centres, and which shall arrest the depopulation of the countryside.

The undue growth of huge insanitary areas, misnamed cities, with crowds of unemployed or unemployable workers, is accompanied by a deserted countryside with labour-starved land, where the

fresh air, sunlight, and fertile soil are reserved more largely for the beasts of the field than for the full and beneficial use and enjoyment of man. During the decennial census period, 1891-1901, there were 2,667,506 persons living in 392,414 overcrowded dwellings, and no less than 507,653 persons living in dwellings consisting of only one room; while during the same period 500,654 persons left the villages for the towns, aggravating and intensifying the evils of overcrowding (*q.v.*) and unemployment (*q.v.*).

Food which might easily and profitably be grown in England is bought from other countries instead of being grown at home. We imported from abroad, in 1909, over £52,000,000 worth of butter, bacon, eggs, poultry, and cheese, which could have been largely produced by an army of small holders in England if we could successfully colonise rural England by giving the labourer a chance to get a piece of land, and live on and from the soil. (See SMALL HOLDINGS.)

The developments that are taking place in the transmission and storage of electric power point to big movements in the direction of decentralised industries linked with adjacent, up-to-date agricultural settlements. They will make it possible by schemes under the Development Act, 1909 (*q.v.*), not only that industries may be carried on by electric power at distances from the centre, but also that there shall be a great cheapening and improvement of the means of transit for both goods and passengers.

For good or evil, this work of rural development in its various forms has been entrusted to county councils (*q.v.*).

Under the Development Act, extensive new powers are given to county councils acting in conjunction with the Road Board (*q.v.*).

It may, however, be pointed out how desirable it is that county councils should adopt a main road policy in conjunction with the Road Board established by the second part of the Development Act, 1909, not only to secure advances in respect of the construction of new roads and the improvement of existing roads, but also specially to facilitate schemes by the Board for the construction of new roads where the Board propose to acquire land for the purpose, and, in addition, to acquire land on either side of the proposed road within 220 yards from the middle thereof. (Sec. 11, Development Act, 1909.)

Tramways Act, 1870. The county council is the "road authority" for main roads in respect of tramways (Sec. 3), and might do for rural districts what the London County Council (*q.v.*) has done for London.

Small Holdings (q.v.) and Co-operation. County Councils may themselves actively promote and initiate schemes and experiments for the more extensive provision of small holdings and allotments (*q.v.*), especially by means of co-operative societies (*q.v.*) and credit banks organised and assisted by the county councils. (Small Holdings Act, 1908, Secs. 4 (3), 7, 9, 24, 49, and 52.)

Money for Deserving Labourers. County councils may apply to the Government for grants or advances to start land banks or credit societies, which will lend money at a low rate of interest for enabling poor but trustworthy men of good character properly to stock and work small holdings and allotments. (Sec. 1, Development Act, 1909, and Sec. 49, Small Holdings Act, 1908.)

Marketing and Travelling Facilities. County councils may promote practical schemes for securing better

methods and better opportunities of marketing agricultural produce, and for setting up better and cheaper means of carrying goods and passengers in country districts where the present rates and charges are much too high. (Sec. 1 (1) (d) Development Act; Tramways Act, 1870; and Light Railways Act, 1896.) (See also CHEAP TRAINS.)

Cottages and Gardens. They may buy land where there is a scarcity of good cottages for working men, and either themselves build cottages with good large gardens, or let the land to builders and others who will put up good and cheap cottages, provided a scheme is put forward which will not inflict any burden on the ratepayers. (Secs. 12, 13, and 72, Housing Act, 1909.) County councils may make district councils look after the houses of the poor, and see that they are kept in good repair, properly supplied with water and thoroughly healthy. (Secs. 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15, Housing Act, 1909.)

Rural Development Society.—The objects of this recently formed Society are the revival of country life, the exercise of optional powers of county, district, and parish councils under Allotments (*q.v.*), Education (*q.v.*), Small Holdings (*q.v.*), Housing (*q.v.*), and Development (*q.v.*) Acts; the promotion of credit banks and agricultural co-operation (see CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES); the improvement of transit (see CHEAP TRAINS); and the election of representatives on county councils (*q.v.*) in sympathy with these objects.

Candidates at county council elections are questioned as to their views on these matters, and financial assistance given towards defraying election and travelling expenses in the case of good candidates, whose lack of means alone prevents them offering their services in this capacity. The Society also aims at forming in each county groups of men and

women, who watch the action of the county, district, and parish councils with regard to the above powers and activities now made possible by various Acts of Parliament, and by keeping in touch with the Society make common action practicable when thought desirable. At the last county council elections the Society took action in eight counties in the South of England, and promoted the return of thirty-three county councillors in sympathy with its objects.

The great importance to national health, food supplies, and the problem of congested town areas, of this question of the revival in keeping with modern conditions of village life is meeting with increased recognition. The Rural Development Society, in consequence, points out the ways in which men and women realising this importance can give effect to their aspirations. County councils may be encouraged with the help of grants or advances from the Government—

(1) To buy land or hire land, and let it to the people for small holdings (*q.v.*) or allotments (*q.v.*); or to builders, working men, and others for putting up cottages.

(2) To build cottages, with gardens up to an acre, or lend money to societies of working men who desire land for cottages or for cultivation.

(3) To set up cheaper and better means of carrying goods and passengers in country districts where the present rates and charges are much too high (see **CHEAP TRAINS**).

(4) To buy waste land and teach the people afforestation (*q.v.*) by giving work at the slack time of the year to unskilled labour, as is done so successfully in Germany, at a profit to the ratepayers and the taxpayers.

(5) To encourage and if necessary to start new schemes for such home and cottage industries as can be

carried on in the villages either all the year round or in the slack time.

(6) To set up credit banks to lend money at a low rate of interest to poor men of good character who can get their neighbours to guarantee their trustworthiness, and thus help them to get a better living in their own villages instead of crowding into the towns.

The office of the Society is at 6, John Street, Adelphi, W.C.

Rural District Councils.—These act for those parts of England and Wales out of London which are not within the district of any urban district council (*q.v.*). There were (last return) 656 rural district councils acting for 666 rural districts, the affairs of ten districts being administered by councils of adjoining rural districts.

A rural district council consists of a chairman and councillors, the latter being directly elected for three years, and the former elected annually by the council from within or without its own body. The chairman becomes a justice of the peace. While in office, the councillors act as guardians for the parishes for which they were elected. A member of the council may be vice-chairman.

The principal officers of a rural district council are usually a clerk, treasurer, medical officer of health (*q.v.*), surveyor and inspector of nuisances.

These councils are both highway and sanitary authorities, but in the latter capacity have not such full powers generally as urban district councils. Provision is made, however, whereby they may be invested with "urban" powers where necessary. Except, therefore, that they in no case deal with education, the matters with which they are, or may be concerned, do not differ materially, in general character, from those mentioned under the head of "urban district

councils." In certain cases, default on the part of a rural district council in the performance of its duties may be made the subject of complaint to the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) or the county council.

The annual expenditure of rural district councils amounted (last return) to £4,340,000, and their loan debt to £5,870,000. Part of their expenditure is charged equally over the respective districts, and the rest is "special" expenditure chargeable over portions of the districts.

The principal revenues of the councils were: Rates, £3,000,000 (of which £2,235,000 was for general expenses); grants (*q.v.*), £400,000.

Rural Education.—(See AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION and OUT-DOOR EDUCATION.)

Rural Housing.—(See also BUILDING BYE-LAWS and HOUSING ACTS). Wages are so low in rural districts that it is difficult to construct dwellings up to modern sanitary requirements for which the rural workman can pay an economic rent. The old practice of treating cottages as part of the "furniture" of an estate led to the existence of many cheap dwellings years ago, which are becoming more old and dilapidated every day; while in numerous villages where they are still tied to the farm or mine, other and obvious causes prevent sanitary improvements being effected. Until recently, moreover, the procedure for erecting municipal cottages was more costly and cumbrous in rural districts than anywhere else. Hence not more than six rural districts have erected new cottages under the Housing Act, and the total number so built does not exceed sixty in England.

The rural district council (*q.v.*) is the local authority for housing and town planning (*q.v.*) in rural districts (Sec. 65 (1) Housing and Town Planning Act); it may build

cottages, close dwellings unfit for habitation (see CLOSING ORDERS), remove obstructive buildings (see SMALL SLUMS AND UNHEALTHY BUILDINGS) and buildings injurious to health; compel landlords to keep houses under £16 a year in repair, if let after December, 1909. If the rural council is in default, its power to build may be transferred to the county council on the complaint of four householders, and this latter body possess default powers in respect of houses unfit for habitation, or injurious to health.

The Local Government Board (*q.v.*) has full default powers in all rural districts where a pressing need for more houses and better houses can be demonstrated to exist. In Feb., 1910, they ordered the Chertsey Rural District Council to build at least twelve new cottages.

The rural district council is no longer obliged to obtain the consent of the county council before instituting building schemes. Land for cottage building can be acquired compulsorily without paying extra compensation above the market value. It may be held by the local authority for the purpose of building in the future, but in this case it must be obtained by agreement. Loans for building may be obtained from the Public Works Loans Commissioners at the lowest rate of interest allowed for the time being for loans out of the local loans fund, and the period for repayment has been extended to a maximum of eighty years. The rate of interest will not be higher on account of the longer time allowed for repayment. There still remains, however, the probability that where a rural district council provides cottages for labourers there will be an annual deficit, the amount of which depends upon the initial cost of the land and of building the cottages, the soundness and durability of the

buildings, and the amount at which the rents are fixed.

One means of meeting the scarcity of cottages is to build small houses at economic rents, which can be let to persons of a class slightly better off than the rural labourer. These houses relieve to some extent the pressure on the cottage accommodation, and thus render it easier for the poorer labourers to obtain house-room. This indirect method of helping to solve the difficulty is open to no objection financially, and may be of considerable value.

Some useful work in rural house building is being done under the Small Holdings Act, 1908, which allows a dwelling-house to be erected on an allotment (*q.v.*) or small holding (*q.v.*) of more than one acre, and at the end of 1910 about 100 new cottages had thus been provided, the land attached to the cottages producing an income which helps to pay a higher rent than would otherwise be possible.

The only effective laws, however, for rural housing are the Labourers (Ireland) Acts, under which over 40,000 cottages have been erected at rents varying from 9d. to 2s. a week. This has been due to five factors, viz.: (1) The power given to three persons to require local authorities (*q.v.*) to make a housing scheme where the existing house accommodation for labourers is deficient or unfit for human habitation; (2) the simple and expeditious procedure under the scheme; (3) the low rate of interest at which money to the extent of £8,000,000 has been lent by Government for this purpose; (4) the payment of subsidies from the Imperial Exchequer, and the rates to the extent of about half the rent that would be necessary to make the scheme pay; (5) the keen support given to municipal housing (*q.v.*) schemes for labourers by the clergy, landlords, and farmers, who willingly support

rate subsidies owing to the great advantages they reap generally from having the labourers better housed.

These Acts might well be adopted in England. The late Mr. Wilson Fox, in his evidence before the Select Committee on Rural Housing (1906), estimated that to provide 10,000 cottages costing £200, and let at a rent of 2s. per week, allowing £2 5s. per annum for expenses, with money at 3½ per cent. for sixty years, would cost the State annually only £40,000, and at the expiration of the term the cottages would be the property of the country. It might be possible to get such a grant under Sec. 1 of the Development Act (*q.v.*), 1909, as part of a general county scheme, "calculated to develop agriculture and rural industries or to promote the economic development of the United Kingdom."

Rural Housing and Sanitary Association.—This Association was founded, in 1902, on non-party lines to effect an improvement in housing and sanitation in rural districts. The Society has several small branches, and organises meetings in country towns and villages. It issues an annual report and sundry papers on rural housing activities and the default of the various authorities concerned. Secretary, Miss Annette Churton, Parliament Mansions, Victoria Street, S.W.

Rural Midwives' Association.—(See MIDWIVES.)

Rural Nursing Association.—(See VILLAGE NURSING.)

Sack-sewing.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES' EXHIBITION.)

Saddlery and Harness-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

St. John Ambulance Association.—The Order of St. John of Jerusalem can trace its history back to the eleventh century, and an association with the care of the sick

since that date. For centuries the Order was one of the most important in Europe. Its chief seat was in Clerkenwell, and the gate of the priory completed by the last prior but one before the suppression of the Order in the reign of Henry VIII is still known as St. John's Gate, and is connected with the ambulance department of the Grand Priory of the Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem in England. The Order was represented at the International Conference of Red Cross Societies held in 1869, and many members enrolled themselves in the British Red Cross Society at its formation; but it was felt that there was room for some similar organisation of a permanent character. In 1872 a member of the Order gave £100 for the establishment of an ambulance service in mining and pottery districts. The members of the Order continued to give attention to the subject; and in 1878 the St. John Ambulance Association came into existence, but with a management and finance independent of the Order. The work of the Association quickly developed, especially in London and colliery districts, and in 1880 a dépôt was established at St. John's Gate to supply the material required for use in ambulance classes (see AMBULANCE WORK). During the following years branches were formed throughout the British Empire, so that when Queen Victoria in 1888 granted a charter to the Grand Priory of the Order, the St. John Ambulance Association was incorporated with the Order as one of its principal foundations, and was made subject to its laws and regulations.

The Association has supplemented the ambulance work (*q.v.*) with courses on hygiene and sanitation, though they may be regarded as having the precedence, since their work is preventive

rather than curative. The object is to provide a practical knowledge of sanitary science and the laws of health, which will enable those acquiring it to keep their bodies and homes in a healthy condition, thereby tending to check the occurrence and spread of disease. The arrangements for classes are similar to those for first aid (see AMBULANCE WORK), and are also recognised by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) and local education authorities (*q.v.*).

Sale of Food and Drugs Acts.—(See ADULTERATION.)

Salvation Army.—The *Dictionary of National Biography* sums up the life of Mrs. Catherine Booth by saying that "a true cause of all that is best and most permanent in the methods of the Salvation Army" was "her passionate, reverent, and courageous faith." It was in 1855 that Mr. William Booth was married to Catherine Mumford. In the same year he was appointed by a body of Wesleyan reformers to carry on a series of revival meetings. In 1858 Mr. Booth began a ministry at Gateshead, and there inaugurated some of the methods which have since become characteristic of the Salvation Army. His wife, as occasion required, began to take a public part in the services. In 1865 they moved to London, and the beginnings of the Salvation Army are generally traced to the formation shortly after in Whitechapel of the "Christian Revival Association." The present title was not adopted until 1877, and the military organisation was extended by a rapid process of development. Mr. Booth has become the "General" with a large force of officers under his control, and corps in all parts of the world. Ultimately the control of everything rests in his hands. Large sums have been raised and placed at his disposal, and the annual income some years ago

passed £1,000,000. Whether the Army does a great religious work is a matter upon which there is room for difference of opinion, but it is an important agency for the amelioration of the social conditions of the people, and in that capacity has been subsidised by the Governments of some of the Dominions. Any comprehensive account of its various activities even in this country cannot be attempted in the space at disposal, but a list of some will assist to show their extent. From the head-quarters in Queen Victoria Street there are directed in various parts of the country organisation for feeding the starving, clothing the destitute, reforming the drunkard and inebriate, caring for the poor in workhouses (*q.v.*), providing work for the unemployed, sheltering the homeless, visiting the prisoners (*q.v.*) and restoring them to their position as citizens, reclaiming fallen women (see RESCUE WORK), and guarding those who are in danger, nursing the sick, seeking the lost, tending the orphans (see ORPHANAGES), giving a chance to the neglected children, emigrating those capable of making a new start in another country (see COLONISATION), caring for the deaf and dumb, and encouraging thrift (*q.v.*) by a large scheme of insurance and banks.

Samaritan Funds.—These funds are of great service in hospitals (*q.v.*) as a means of material support for poor patients. The money from these funds is used to pay for convalescent treatment or for providing various surgical instruments. As a general rule they are managed by hospital almoners, who co-operate with relatives and friends of patients in meeting the expenses of the treatment, and with various societies in the neighbourhood.

Sanatoria for Consumptives.—At most sanatoria much difficulty is still experienced in getting cases at

an early and curable stage of the disease. An immense amount of money has been wasted and much disappointment caused in the past by the admission of unsuitable cases. In Germany, where a large number of sanatoria for the working class have been established, this difficulty does not exist to the same degree as it does in England. Under the system of compulsory insurance of work-people against sickness and incapacity, which is in force in the German Empire, the workman when attacked by tuberculosis has a legal claim on insurance funds for medical treatment and maintenance in his own case and also for the support of his family (see WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD).

The length of stay in a sanatorium is in most instances too short; this is the result partly of insufficient accommodation and partly of lack of appreciation of what constitutes a cure. Speaking broadly, the average period of residence at a sanatorium may be fixed at six months.

"After results" are largely determined not only by the selection of suitable cases, but also by the "after-care" which can be bestowed on the patients. If they have to return to faulty conditions of life, a relapse is not unlikely to follow. There is a consensus of opinion that on economic grounds patients should return to their own work whenever possible, even where that work is not ideal from a medical point of view. Where a dispensary for the prevention of consumption (see ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM) exists, it will advantageously undertake the after-care of the patient; other patients may be referred to the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) in their district, or to other societies; in some cases the sanatorium has an after-care committee of its own,

which endeavours to find employment for the patients on leaving. It is generally best for patients to go to a sanatorium in their own county or in the neighbourhood where, in the ordinary course, their after-life will be spent.

At the more modern sanatoria graduated work for the patients is part of the treatment, and this has the great advantage of rendering them fit to return to their own work on leaving.

SANATORIA FOR THE WAGE-EARNING CLASSES.

The following are a few of the leading working-class sanatoria available for British subjects, arranged alphabetically:—

1. *Brompton Hospital Sanatorium*, Frimley, Surrey. 150 beds. Secretary, Brompton Hospital, S.W. Patients admitted from the wards at Brompton, and direct from their homes on payment of 25s. weekly. Graduated work. No after-care committee. Patients recommended to return to old employment.

2. *Danewood Sanatorium for Persons Suffering from Consumption*, Woburn Sands, Bedfordshire. 24 beds. Hon. Secretaries, Miss R. Jacob, 16 St. John's Wood Park, N.W., and G. S. Joseph, Esq., 23 Clanricarde Gardens, W. Admission free, on application to Hon. Secretaries, if considered suitable by consultant physician. Patients must be unable to pay, and of the Jewish persuasion. After-care undertaken by Metropolitan After-Care Committee and Jewish Board of Guardians (*q.v.*).

3. *Kelling Sanatorium*, Holt, Norfolk. 53 beds. Hon. Secretary, Dr. H. W. McConnel, Matlaske Hall, Norwich. 30s. weekly. A reduction is made in suitable cases, if found necessary by the Admission Committee. Applications to be made to the Secretary, Kelling Sanatorium, Holt. The sanatorium has

an after-care committee. Patients recommended to return to old employment. Charity Organisation Society's cases referred back.

4. *Maitland Sanatorium for Working-class Patients*, Peppard, Oxfordshire. 40 beds. Apply to Dr. Esther Carling. 30s. weekly. Gardening and carpentering taught. Patients recommended to return to old employment. Charity Organisation Society's cases referred back.

5. *Maltings Farm Sanatorium*, Nayland, Suffolk. 40 beds. Apply to Dr. Jane Walker, 122 Harley Street, W. Men, 30s. weekly; women, 25s. weekly. Four men and four women as working patients at a charge of 12s. 6d. weekly. Gardening and lace-making taught. Patients recommended to return to old employment. Charity Organisation Society's cases referred back.

6. *National Sanatorium*, Benenden, Kent. 90 beds. H. Seagrave, Secretary. Admission by recommendation of an affiliated Society. Beds, £65 per annum. Patients employed in various industries at the sanatorium. No after-care committee. Patients recommended to return to old employment.

7. *Northwood Sanatorium*. Secretary, 7 Fitzroy Square, W. Patients admitted from the wards of Mount Vernon Hospital, Hampstead. No after-care committee. Old employment recommended.

8. *Royal National Hospital for Consumption*, Ventnor, Isle of Wight. 163 beds. Secretary, 18 Buckingham Street, W.C. Admission by subscriber's letter and 10s. weekly. Graduated work. No after-care committee. Old employment recommended.

9. *Royal Victoria Hospital for Consumption*, Craigleith, Edinburgh. 100 beds. Norman Cairns, Clerk, 4 St. Andrew's Square, Edinburgh. Admission free. (A limited number pay £1 1s. weekly.) Graduated work. Patients

recommended to return to old employment, or prepared for other work at Royal Victoria Hospital Farm Colony, Springfield, Lasswade. Systematic after-care of patients.

SANATORIA FOR THE PROFESSIONAL CLASSES.

1. *Queen Alexandra Sanatorium*, Davos, Switzerland. 54 beds. 38s. weekly. Hon. Secretaries, W. Ewart Esq., M.D., 31 Upper Brook Street, W., and D. Vezey, Esq., 3 Camp View, Wimbledon Common, S.W.

2. *King Edward VII. Sanatorium*, Midhurst. 101 beds. Two guineas weekly. Information can be obtained from the medical superintendent.

SANATORIA FOR CHILDREN.

1. *Lord Mayor Treloar Cripples' Home*, Alton. 200 beds. Admission free. Information can be obtained from Sir William Treloar, Bart, 122-124 Mansion House Chambers, E.C.

2. *Children's Sanatorium for the Treatment of Phthisis*, Holt, Norfolk. Hon. Secretary, 68 Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W. General cases, 7s. 6d. weekly. Cases from children's institutions, 15s., from Poor Law unions and local authorities by special arrangement.

Sanitary Aid Committees.—(See MANSION HOUSE COUNCIL ON THE DWELLINGS OF THE POOR.)

Sanitary and Health Associations.—The belief that much of the ill-health and mortality prevalent in the poorer quarters of our towns is due to preventable causes, and that the chief of these causes is ignorance, has led to the formation of sanitary or health associations throughout the country. These societies aim at spreading the knowledge of the elementary laws of health (see PERSONAL HEALTH), with special reference to young children, and at strengthening the hands of the local authorities in enforcing legislation designed to promote hygiene. The work may

be said to have originated in Manchester, where, in 1861, a body of ladies organised a system of health visiting. This system was developed, and in 1889 received official sanction by the authorities of the town, who undertook the payment of two of the health visitors (*q.v.*) out of public funds, and asked the Society to send in regular reports of their work to the medical officer of health (*q.v.*). Another pioneer Society was the Mansion House Council on the Dwellings of the Poor (*q.v.*), the members of which sought to improve the conditions of health by reporting all insanitary houses, etc., to the proper authorities (see NUISANCES AND OVERCROWDING). Such reports have been made a feature of the work of all subsequent health associations.

In the last decade of the nineteenth century public opinion was greatly stirred by the heavy rate of infant mortality (*q.v.*) prevalent throughout the country, but especially serious in the great industrial centres. While the rate of mortality in general tended to decrease steadily in proportion to the improvement of sanitary conditions, the rate of mortality of infants under one year either remained stationary or tended to increase. It was suggested that the cause of many of these infant deaths was to be found in the ignorance of their mothers, and that personal instruction of the mothers might save many lives (see SCHOOLS FOR MOTHERS and SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATIONS). This belief was confirmed by an experiment carried out in one district of Huddersfield. It consisted in the organisation of a scheme under which the mothers of young infants were regularly visited from the time of the birth of the child by women qualified to advise them on the best way in which to bring up their babies. Experience proved that such visiting was very

effective not merely in reducing the number of deaths among the babies visited, but in improving the general standard of health among the children and in their homes (see NOTIFICATION OF BIRTHS). The example set in Huddersfield has been adopted by health associations in a very large number of towns and districts (see ASSOCIATION OF HEALTH WORKERS and NATIONAL HEALTH SOCIETY). From returns obtained by the National League for Physical Education and Improvement (*q.v.*), it appears that 111 voluntary associations were at work in ninety-five localities in 1910. In some cases, an association of voluntary workers has undertaken the work of visiting entirely; in others it has been entrusted to officials appointed and paid by public authorities, but reinforced by a voluntary society. The returns quoted above show that, in 1910, 471 paid health visitors were at work in 195 localities, while 964 voluntary workers were distributed over forty-six towns.

The methods adopted by these associations differ with local needs; but, generally speaking, the work undertaken often includes not only the individual visiting and instruction of young mothers in their own homes; but also the organisation of health lectures and classes, of mothers' "at Homes" at which babies may be weighed and inspected, of a suitable milk supply for delicate infants (see MILK DEPÔTS), of dinners for expectant and nursing mothers, of babies' welcome clubs, and so on—the main object of all this work being the improvement of child health.

A more recent development in the work of various health associations has originated from the growing interest in tuberculosis, which, in its turn, is largely due to the work of the National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis (see

PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION). Several associations have undertaken to visit tuberculous patients in their own homes under the direction of medical men, with a view to helping them to adopt proper methods of home treatment and to prevent the spread of infection. Some sanitary associations work in connection with the medical inspection of school children (*q.v.*); while one society manages small house property by means of lady rent collectors (*q.v.*) on the lines laid down by Miss Octavia Hill.

Sanitary Authorities.—These are generally: in London, the common council of the City (*q.v.*), and the Metropolitan borough councils (*q.v.*); out of London, borough and other urban district councils (*q.v.*), rural district councils (*q.v.*); Authorities possessing special or concurrent sanitary powers, in London, the County Council and the Metropolitan Asylum Board (*q.v.*); out of London, county councils (*q.v.*), parish councils (*q.v.*), port sanitary authorities, and various joint authorities. The central authority is the Local Government Board (*q.v.*).

Sanitary Inspectors.—Every sanitary authority (*q.v.*) must appoint a sanitary inspector or inspector of nuisances under the Public Health Act (*q.v.*), 1875, and the Public Health (London) Act, 1891.

In London, sanitary inspectors must either have had three years' previous experience, or must hold a certificate of competence given after examination by an approved body (at present the Sanitary Inspectors' Examination Board). Outside London, the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) can require similar qualifications if any part of the official's salary is repaid. Otherwise the authority can appoint whom it will, but only exceptionally is an unqualified man appointed. The Royal Sanitary Institute (*q.v.*) and

the Sanitary Inspectors' Association watch over the public interest in this respect. The usual qualification is the inspector of nuisances certificate of the Sanitary Institute.

The chief duties of a sanitary inspector are to carry out systematic inspections for the discovery of nuisances (*q.v.*), to inquire into complaints of nuisances, to serve notices for their abatement, to give evidence when legal proceedings are taken, to attend at an office daily, to keep certain books, to inspect food and seize any unsound food (*q.v.*) offered for sale, to attend the meetings of the sanitary authority when required, to take samples under the Food and Drugs Act (see ADULTERATION), and to carry out the directions of the medical officer of health (*q.v.*) for preventing the spread of infectious diseases (*q.v.*). The sanitary inspector works under the medical officer of health or under the special directions of the sanitary authority. In all large towns the former is the case, but in country districts the two officers may be to a certain extent independent, the sanitary inspector being an executive official and the medical officer of health for the most part only an advisory officer.

The duties may be, and in well organised boroughs generally are, specialised, *e.g.*, one sanitary inspector takes samples under the Food and Drugs Act, another inspects houses let in lodgings and common lodging houses (*q.v.*), while a third may make inquiries as to infectious diseases (*q.v.*).

The salaries of sanitary inspectors in large towns vary chiefly between £100 and £200. Some chief sanitary inspectors have as much as £250 and £350.

The best sanitary inspector is a man who, in addition to having passed the necessary and other examinations, has served an

apprenticeship to the trade of plumber, carpenter, or builder.

A sanitary inspector may be either a man or woman. Many sanitary authorities have appointed women, believing that certain duties of inspectors are best carried out by well-trained ladies. Such duties are (1) making inquiries as to infectious diseases; (2) inspecting workshops where women are employed; (3) inspecting public or semi-public sanitary conveniences for women, *e.g.*, at railway stations and factories; (4) inspecting houses as regards the dirty habits of the tenants, especially houses let in lodgings and registered under bye-laws (*q.v.*). These duties all come strictly within those prescribed by the Local Government Board under the Public Health Acts; but advising mothers as to the care of children, though work of even more importance than that just mentioned, does not come under the statutory duties of a sanitary inspector, though it is often undertaken by women inspectors (see HEALTH VISITORS). In that case the local authority will not be entitled to receive from the county council any proportion of that part of the salary which is allotted for the non-statutory duties.

In a few Metropolitan boroughs, and many provincial districts, health visitors are appointed to combat infantile mortality (*q.v.*), who are not qualified as sanitary inspectors. But most of the large boroughs have women inspectors, part of whose duties are similar to those of health visitors.

Sanitation.—(See DRAINAGE.)

Sanitation Classes.—(See ST. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION.)

Savings Banks.—(See THRIFT.)

Scarlet Fever.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Scattered Homes.—(See CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.)

Scholarships.—(See EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES.) A most important, if not an essential part, of the ladder from the elementary scholar to the university is the scholarship. The scholar is enabled by it to pass from the elementary school (*q.v.*) to the secondary school (*q.v.*), and again to the university, or with its aid he may be specially trained for occupations in trade or develop his especial talent. The scholarships vary in different localities, and any comprehensive description of their scope would be impossible, but the attempt to denote some of the more general has been made under the various headings to which they have reference.

School Age.—(See ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL and BOY LABOUR.)

School and College Missions.—The formation of school and college missions was the outcome of a desire on the part of those who had more opportunities to help in some way those who had less. The work of the missions is bound closely to that of the University Settlements (see SETTLEMENTS), from which they get considerable help in the lay part of their work. The missions are of four kinds: (1) Those undertaking a whole parish; (2) those undertaking a mission district with a mission church, part of an existing parish, but worked quite separately; (3) those who have clubs for boys or men as their mission; (4) those who have homes for destitute boys. Trinity College, Cambridge, and Harrow School have separate parishes. Mission districts are undertaken by Oxford Colleges—Christ Church, Magdalen, Trinity; Cambridge Colleges—Clare, Corpus, Gonville and Caius, Pembroke, St. John's; schools—Bradfield, Charterhouse, Cheltenham, Christ's Hospital, Clifton, Cranleigh, Eton, Felsted, Highgate, Kelly College, Malvern, Marlborough, Merchant Taylors, Ros-

sale, Rugby, Tonbridge, Wellington, and Winchester. The following have clubs (see BOYS' CLUBS): Cambridge Colleges—Queen's, Magdalen; schools—Haileybury and Radley. The following have homes (see WORKING BOYS' HOMES): Cambridge Colleges—Christ's and Trinity Hall; schools—Dulwich College.

School Attendance. (See ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOLS.)

School Banks.—(See THRIFT.)

School Board.—(See LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES.)

School Children, Employment of.—(See CHILD LABOUR and WAGE EARNING CHILDREN COMMITTEE.)

School Clinics.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES, CLEANSING OF, DISEASES OF, SPECTACLES FOR, and TEETH OF, SCHOOL CHILDREN, "FOLLOWING UP" and SCHOOL DOCTORS.) It is now the practice after some defect has been found in a child by means of the school medical inspection (see MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS) to notify the fact to the child's parents, advising that the child should be taken to a doctor for treatment. It is found, however, that a number of parents either neglect to seek any further medical advice, or fail to persevere in the course of treatment prescribed. This is due in some cases to carelessness, but also to the fact that a number of parents cannot afford the time or money for a long journey to a hospital with the loss, in many cases, of work and wages. This is especially the case in regard to diseases which appear trivial to the less intelligent parent, and require long and relatively costly treatment. To meet this unsatisfactory state of affairs, the Board of Education (*q.v.*) has sanctioned the establishment of school clinics in the neighbourhood of a school or group of schools. The clinic must be managed by the local education authority (*q.v.*) and its medical

officers. Before sanctioning any scheme, the Board require to be informed "what precautions the Local Education Authority will take to secure that only those children shall be treated in a school clinic for whose treatment adequate provision cannot otherwise be made, whether by the parents or by . . . hospitals, or through the agency of the Poor Law," "and what is the estimated cost . . . , and how it is proposed to meet this cost, out of the rates or otherwise." The only fully-equipped clinic is that at Bradford. The establishment charges, including alterations to premises, vision-testing apparatus, and X-ray apparatus for ringworm, were £220. The maintenance charges, including drugs and salaries to medical officers, are £378 per annum. During the year 1908, 841 children received treatment, and 590 children were examined and referred to other agencies where necessary. The diseases treated were defective vision, external eye disease, ringworm, skin diseases, and ear discharge. Clinics on a smaller scale have been established at Brighton, Reading, Abertillery, Southampton, and York. At Cambridge a dental clinic was started by private munificence and taken over by the local authority. The cost is 1s. 3d. per head of the number of school children on the register. A voluntary clinic at Bow, in East London, treats eyes, ears, some skin diseases, anæmia, and debility.

School Doctors.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES; FEEDING OF, MEDICAL INSPECTION OF, SPECTACLES FOR and TEETH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN and "FOLLOWING UP.") The School Medical Officer was first recognised officially by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) in the Code of 1908, and defined as "a medical officer named by the local education authority (*q.v.*) and recognised as such by the Board."

Prior to 1908 the Medical Officer of Health (*q.v.*) was charged with certain duties in respect to the prevention of infectious diseases (*q.v.*) in schools; and provision was allowed for the appointment of medical men to execute duties in connection with Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf) Act, 1893, and the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic) Act, 1897.

According to the Code for public elementary schools (*q.v.*) of 1908, the duties of the School Medical Officer are:—

(1) To report on the working and effect of any arrangements made for educating children at open-air schools (*q.v.*), school camps, and other places selected with a view to the improvement of the health and physical condition of the children.

(2) To advise or approve the closure of a school in the case of outbreak of epidemic disease.

(3) To authorise the exclusion of certain children from a school, either in order to prevent the spread of disease on account of their uncleanly (see CLEANSING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN) and verminous condition (see VERMIN), or because, owing to their state of health, they are incapable of receiving proper benefit from the school instruction (see DISEASES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN).

In addition to these specific duties, the Board emphasise the desirability of assisting local education authorities to concentrate and organise in the department of the School Medical Officer matters of school hygiene, including medical inspection (*q.v.*) under the Act of 1907.

Up to the end of the school year 1908-9, school medical officers had been recognised for 307 out of the 328 local educational areas. In 224 of these 328 areas the school medical officer is also the medical officer of health, and thus co-ordination of the work of the two medical services

is effected. In 160 areas the appointment of a single School Medical Officer has been found sufficient. In the remaining 147 areas there are 616 assistant medical officers, 122 whole time and 494 part time. In the whole school medical service of England and Wales there are now about 1,084 medical officers.

School Journeys.—(See also OUT-DOOR EDUCATION.) The code of regulations for public elementary schools (*q.v.*) in England allows to be reckoned in the "attendance" for the purpose of official statistics "any time occupied, with the sanction of the inspector and under arrangements approved by him, by school journeys, or rambles, or visits paid during the school hours to places of educational value or interest." The exact means by which use may be made of these provisions is left to the individual initiative of managers and teachers. Visits to places of educational value or interest are a common feature of school life, but the school journey requires the expenditure of more trouble and money. It requires to be carefully planned with a definite aim, and besides cultivating the general powers of observation of the scholars, may directly contribute to their knowledge of history, geography, botany, geology, architecture, and, in fact, almost any subject which may be made available by the resources of the neighbourhood. An interesting and suggestive account of various methods and aims of the school journey is contained in "Longer School Journeys," by Mr. G. G. Lewis, Chairman of the Executive of the School Journey Association. The school journey is in practice an educational and methodical development of the school treat (*q.v.*), which is further illustrated by the fact that recent experiments have included trips to foreign countries.

School Libraries.—The Elementary Education Code requires that "provision should be made for securing an adequate supply of suitable books for the course of general reading in the higher classes of the school, and for bringing to the notice of the scholars such agencies as may assist them in the continuation of their studies in after life." In the furtherance of this intention, the Board of Education (*q.v.*) has given official encouragement to the National Home Reading Union (*q.v.*). The Code further requires that "in cases where the school does not possess a school library, arrangements should be made to supply books for the reading of the scholars by co-operation with organisations existing for the purpose or otherwise." The organisation which has taken the lead in this matter is the Central Circulating Library Association, founded in 1890. It was originally intended for the dioceses of Liverpool and Chester, and has its head office at the Church House, Liverpool. The operations, which are dependent upon voluntary subscription, have been extended into all parts of England and Wales and Ireland. Similar organisations have been established in various parts of the country for particular localities. The Popular Book Club, Clapham, is willing to supply boxes of books for elementary schools throughout England.

In some cases, arrangements have been made between the Education Committee and the Library Committee (see PUBLIC LIBRARIES) whereby the latter undertakes to keep a supply of juvenile literature at the disposal of the former, at a cost of 1s. per volume per annum. Boxes containing from ten to forty volumes, according to the size of the school, are sent out at the cost of the Education Committee, who replace books lost, damaged, or destroyed owing to infectious

disease. The boxes of books are changed at the direction of the teacher (usually about four times a year), who supervises the issue of the volumes to the children. The selection of the books is generally left to the librarian, who keeps a record of what has been supplied to the school, though naturally attention is paid to any expression of the wishes of the teacher. The school library not only does valuable educational work in encouraging the children to read for themselves and cultivate a desire for knowledge, but in so far as the books are carried into the homes, good literature may be substituted for bad in the reading of their elders.

School Managers.—By the passing of the Education Act, 1902, the duties of school managers have been diminished and the administration centralised in the education committee (see LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES). It has been doubted whether this arrangement has been wholly beneficial to education, since it is desirable to increase rather than diminish the interest of the section of the community from whom the school managers were drawn in the administration of elementary education. The body of school managers may be constituted in two ways, according to whether the school has been provided by the local education authority, or is what is known as a non-provided school. For the provided schools the body of managers must number not more than four, appointed by the council, and not more than two appointed by the minor local authority, that is a borough, urban district, or parish council. The numbers may be increased, provided that the proportion is maintained, and the schools may be grouped under one body of managers.

For the non-provided schools

there must be four foundation managers and two representative managers. If the local education authority is the council of a borough or urban district, then both are appointed by that authority. Otherwise one is appointed by the county council and the other by the minor local authority. The foundation managers are to be appointed in accordance with the trust deed, and it is their duty to maintain the religious character of the school. They are responsible for the maintenance of the school-house, except for such damage as may be due to fair wear and tear in its use as a school. The details as to the administration of each individual school are generally set forth in a scheme approved by the Board of Education (*q.v.*). Managers of Church of England schools may receive assistance in any difficulty with which they may be confronted from the Diocesan Board of Education or the National Society.

Many school managers interest themselves in matters, apart from education, concerning the welfare of the children, and are active in the work of Children's Care Committees (*q.v.*), feeding of school children (*q.v.*), and assisting them as they leave the school and enter upon the battle of life (see APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES, and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS).

School Nurses.—(See CLEANSING OF AND MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, and "FOLLOWING UP.")

School of Sociology and Social Economics (63-64, Denison House, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.).—This school, founded in 1903, not only provides isolated courses of lectures adapted to the needs of people engaged in various branches of social work, and open to the general public at a small fee for

each course, but also arranges a systematic curriculum of social study and training, extending over one year, for the regular student. Instruction given in the form both of lectures or class-teaching and of individual tuition is provided in the following subjects: Social and industrial history of recent times; social economics and problems of industry; social ethics and philosophy; special problems of poverty and methods of dealing with them. All students entering for the complete course are expected to take part in practical work and observation as arranged by the school, unless they have already had sufficient experience. Special facilities for this are provided in connection with the Charity Organisation Society's (*q.v.*) committees (see SOCIAL WORKER, TRAINING OF), as well as other agencies. It is usual for students to spend part of each week, during the first few months of their course, in practical work under the guidance of the secretary of a Charity Organisation committee, and for the remainder of the course to devote some time to special work, such as rent collecting (see LADY RENT COLLECTORS), provident visiting, club management, visiting and inquiries in connection with Skilled Employment Associations, special inquiries into industrial conditions, and various branches of settlement (*q.v.*) work. A certificate is granted on the result of an examination at the close of each session. Special arrangements are made for students who wish to prolong their course of study or to take a modified course. Many former students of the school are now engaged either in voluntary social work or in salaried positions, for which such systematic training is becoming an increasingly essential qualification. The fee for the session is £12 12s.; for one term, £5. A special branch of the

school work is concerned with the provision of lectures for relieving and other Poor Law officers (see RELIEVING OFFICERS) on subjects immediately connected with their professional duties (see POOR LAW EXAMINATIONS BOARD).

School Treats.—The religious bodies seem to teach the children from their earliest years that for everything connected with their religion there is a marketable value. The material return for attendance at infant Sunday school is a treat in a garden or open space in the summer, and a tea at Christmas with prizes. For the older children there is a more elaborate treat. Some are beginning to realise that this association does not ultimately commend religion to the children. Mr. Reginald Bray, in *The Town Child*, took exception to it for more general reasons. The school treat in the country is more like a family party than the gathering of town children, which too often deserves his censures. He says that the treat "serves as an occasion to throw off the little self-control the children possess, while it teaches them once again that disorder is a necessary accompaniment of enjoyment." In the school journeys (*q.v.*) the day school teachers have shown the capabilities of a day's outing. The religious attachment should further rather than hinder its aim. At the outset a right spirit may be imparted to the proceedings by assembling the children in a place of worship for a short service. They can be clearly informed that the object is the enjoyment of the whole school or society, which is to be secured by the directions given for that purpose, and by the endeavour of each unit to consider the happiness of the others. With an adequate staff of teachers, it is possible to find many opportunities during the day to assist the children to put into practice this main principle,

and at the same time give them far more real enjoyment than if they were left to their own undesirable devices. The seaside is better than the semi-country place, because the children are more likely to depend upon the sea than upon extraneous occupation for their pleasure, but the usual size of these expeditions seems to be an insuperable objection, which can only be mitigated by splitting up into small groups, on arrival, at the place of destination, under the direction of teachers. Whatever other purpose the day may have, it is certain that it presents an admirable opportunity to the teacher to become really acquainted with the children, and discover many an unexpected trait of character.

Schools for Mothers.—(See also SOCIETY OF INFANT CONSULTATION.) Schools for mothers provide instruction in the feeding and general care of children. Some are at present limited to work dealing with the physical health of children under one year of age, but probably in the future most of these schools will extend their work. The limitation of the idea of motherhood to the purely physiological aspects of the relationship and to the needs of the first year of life must yield to a wider view of the mother's influence on the whole course of the child's development, whilst insistence on the responsibilities of fathers must also find its place.

The first school for mothers in this country was the St. Pancras School, founded, in 1907, as a voluntary institution working in close connection with the municipal authority. Full inquiry into the conditions of infant life in the borough had previously been made by the medical officer of health, Dr. Sykes, who is one of the hon. secretaries, while the general social conditions of the district were known, as a result of philanthropic

work, to the other Hon. Secretary, Miss Evelyn Bunting. Knowledge of Continental conditions and methods was added by the Hon. Mrs. Bertrand Russell. Both medical skill and local knowledge were contributed by Dr. Dora Bunting, the first hon. medical officer to the school.

The work includes :—

- (1) Infant weighings and consultations.
- (2) Baby clothes, knitting, and cutting-out classes.
- (3) Lectures on infant care.
- (4) Lectures on the care of children over twelve months.
- (5) Cookery teaching in classes and in the homes of the pupils.
- (6) Classes for expectant mothers.
- (7) Provident club. (See also MATERNITY CLUBS.)
- (8) Dinners for nursing mothers.
- (9) Lectures for fathers.

Extensions of the work are projected.

In starting a new institution of this kind, it is probably best to begin with infant weighing done under the supervision of a doctor. This doctor's work should concern only the maintenance and improvement of health. Actual disease should be referred to the ordinary medical attendant of the family, so that no friction with the medical practitioners of the district need result. After a careful study of the personalities, needs, and home conditions of the mothers, the school may develop in the directions best suited to the requirements of the district. It seems best to begin in the simplest manner, and to preface any attempt at remedial action by a careful diagnosis of the social disease whose cure or alleviation is to be attempted.

As to the necessary *personnel* of the institution, a doctor for weighings and consultations is a necessity. A trained nurse, or a woman with very considerable knowledge

of children and of social work, is needed as superintendent. The personality of the superintendent is of importance, for many of the mothers will copy her manners and become infected by her tone of thought. The persons conducting the school should have some diversity of training and experience, so that the methods may not fall into any one groove. The school should be essentially a living organism, adaptable and capable of growth. The mode of instruction should receive much attention. The social conditions of the mothers and their degree of intelligence should be considered with extreme care. In dealing with the more ignorant, the students' modes of expression should be studied, and the language of the teacher should be adapted to the comprehension of her hearers. Care should be taken as to the naming of ordinary household articles and as to the meaning of ordinary terms to ensure that teacher and taught attach the same idea to the same word. The lessons should be short, bright, simple, and well illustrated. Wherever possible, class teaching should be followed by teaching in the students' own homes. The aim is to give such reality to the instruction as shall ensure its immediate practical application. The women should be encouraged to bring up their difficulties for discussion and to exercise their wits on the discovery of solutions to domestic problems.

Whether any material help should be given to the mothers will depend on the resources of the district. Where efficient relief societies exist, it will probably be best to refer necessitous cases to them. Where the school finds it necessary to give relief, careful investigation should be made and the relief should be given, so far as possible, in such a way as to be itself educative.

Schools of Art.—The regulations

of the Board of Education (*q.v.*) relating to technical education (*q.v.*) define a school of art as an institution giving an organised course of instruction, including advanced instruction in ornamental and decorative art. The work of a school of art must be carried on methodically under the recognised teachers, in day and evening classes, for not less than thirty-six weeks in the year. The day classes must meet for instruction on at least two days a week, and the evening classes on at least three evenings a week. The school must be open for instruction for not less than fourteen hours each week, of which six at least must be in the daytime. There must be a principal teacher holding the full associateship of the Royal College of Art (*q.v.*), or an art master's certificate, or, in exceptional circumstances, such special qualification as the Board may recognise. The premises must be approved by the Board for this purpose, and must not be used for another without the previous sanction of the Board. Branch schools of art may be recognised in connection with the principal school and under the same direction. The Board assists managers in training young, deserving, and qualified students to become teachers by making special grants for art pupil teachers, who must be not less than seventeen or more than twenty-one years of age. The Board may also recognise as an "art class" an institution giving, in day or in day and evening meetings, an organised course of art instruction, including advanced instruction in ornamental and decorative art, in design for manufactures, or art handicraft, and meeting at least three times a week for not less than twenty-eight weeks in the year.

Since the schools of art were incorporated with the Science and Art Department under the Board

of Education, their work has developed considerably. Metal work jewellery, pottery, furniture designing, leather work, bookbinding, enamelling, wrought-iron work, embroidery, lace-making, tiles, glass, wood and stone carving, lithography, etching, and other branches of art handicraft, besides typography and house painting, are being taught in the schools. Moreover, it is recognised that the instruction must be of a practical character, and, among other things, a beginning has been made in the systematic study of design in its practical application to mechanical processes of manufacture. Employers in some places have encouraged their apprentices and other workers to attend the schools of art by paying their fees, affording special facilities for their attendance, and promoting them according to their progress.

Scouts.—(See **BOYS' BRIGADES AND BOY SCOUTS.**)

Seamen, Training of.—Considering the extent to which the founding and continuance of the British Empire rest upon skill in seamanship and all that appertains to it, the neglect of opportunity to train the lads of the nation in that craft is extraordinary. The result is that tens of thousands of foreigners are employed in British ships. A National Committee, with headquarters at the office of the Navy League (11, Victoria Street, Westminster), has been formed to remedy this state of affairs. It is a reasonable claim that every lad from an elementary school should have the same opportunity to adopt the calling of a seaman as is given to lads in Poor Law schools or in reformatory ships (see **HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS AND TRAINING SHIPS**). Some county councils have founded scholarships to enable lads to have a course on a training ship. But workers who recognise the

excellence of the career for the lads, and the extent of its potentialities in making them admirable citizens, may find some difficulty in starting satisfactorily all those in whom they may arouse enthusiasm for the calling. Advice and assistance will be given by the National Committee, and there is some useful information in *Trades for London Boys* (Longmans, 9d.), from which the chief points may be given in a brief summary. First, of course, there is the Navy. Particulars of the various openings and qualifications required can generally be obtained from any post office. The puny youths of urban areas may find some difficulty in coming up to the standard of measurement required before entering, or even to the educational qualification which, roughly, is equal to the fourth standard. During the course of training in the school at Shotley, near Harwich, there is a weeding out of the less efficient. The period of service is for twelve years from the age of eighteen. The sailor at the end of the time does not generally experience the same difficulty as the soldier in obtaining civil employment. In addition to the ordinary seamen, there are various kinds of skilled labourers in the Navy, who, accordingly, receive higher remuneration, besides openings in the dockyards. Entrance to the Merchant Service is obtained through a course on a training ship or by apprenticeship, which may be obtained through the Shipping Federation (Exchange Chambers, St. Mary Axe, E.C.), which is working in co-operation with the Marine Society. Boys are trained on the *Warspite*, and their future welfare cared for under the auspices of the Shipping Federation. The third main branch of life on the sea is on board a fishing smack, but it requires a lad with the strength of body and mind to rough it, and

to take whatever comes with a cheerful readiness.

Secret Commissions and Bribery Prevention League.—(See **ILLICIT COMMISSIONS.**)

Secondary Schools.—It has been one of the unfortunate lacunæ in the English educational system that there is no definition of what is meant by secondary education. By slow degrees ideas are becoming clarified on the subject, and the official regulations for secondary schools suggest the main features. The method in which those regulations are applied by local authorities rightly and properly secures variation. The organisation and curriculum must provide for pupils between the ages of twelve and seventeen. An adequate proportion must remain at least four years; in rural districts, three years. The curriculum must provide instruction in the English language and literature, at least one language other than English, geography, history, mathematics, science, including practical work and drawing. Adequate provision must be made for organised games, physical exercises, manual instruction, and singing. In schools for girls the curriculum must include provision for practical instruction in domestic subjects, such as needlework, cookery, laundry work, house-keeping, and household hygiene (see also **DOMESTIC ECONOMY**). Provision is made for the child from the elementary school (*q.v.*) in the requirement that a certain proportion of the places must be free, that is, there may either be a remission of the fee or admission by means of a scholarship covering the amount of the fee. Pupils entering from the public elementary schools must have been under instruction there for at least two years immediately before passing to the secondary school. Candidates may be required to pass an examination, and, as a

general rule, should not be under ten or over thirteen years of age. The usual age is between ten and twelve years. The exact conditions of admission, however, cannot be ascertained from the general regulations of the Board of Education (*q.v.*), but must be obtained from the school to which the pupil desires to gain admission.

Seduction.—(See also **RESCUE WORK.**) The seduction of a servant gave rise at common law to the right of action by a master against the seducer of his servant. The action was based on the loss of service which resulted from the seduction, and, therefore, on a contract of service actual or implied. Some proof of service must be adduced, although the payment of wages is not essential. Hence service has been presumed in the case of a father whose daughter, a minor, has been seduced. The action will carry a claim for damages.

It has been decided judicially that the term "seduction," as used in Sec. 17 of the Children Act, 1908, means "inducing a girl to part with her virtue for the first time." This restricted the operation of Sec. 17, and in consequence the Children Act Amendment Act, 1910, was passed to enlarge its scope. The latter Act, however, has not altered the definition of seduction as laid down by the judges.

Separate Schools.—(See **CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW.**)

Separation.—(See **HUSBAND AND WIFE.**)

Settlement and Removal of Paupers.—(See also **VAGRANCY.**) The relief of the poor is chargeable to the common fund of the union. It is impossible to give here more than a general outline of the law relating to it.

The term "settlement" implies the right of a person to the benefits of the Poor Law within the place

where he has his settlement. This may be acquired by birth, *i.e.*, of the place in which a child is born ; but such settlement is only *prima facie*, and the settlement of a legitimate child under sixteen is that of its father, and that of a bastard (see **BASTARDY**) is that of its mother. This is called a "derivative settlement." When, however, the settlement of the child's parent is itself derivative, the child takes its own settlement by birth. Settlement may also be acquired in other ways, *e.g.*, a woman takes her husband's settlement ; or it may be acquired by payment of rates, the owning of an estate, apprenticeship, or renting a tenement of a rateable value of at least £10. Settlement may be acquired by residence for three years in any parish under such circumstances as would render the person so acquiring it "irremovable" in consequence of each of these three years. The years must be unbroken and consecutive. (For the meaning of "irremovable," see *below*.) In this connection it is to be borne in mind that the term "parish" does not include "union."

If a settlement has been acquired in any of the ways described, the person who is so settled can take the benefit of the Poor Law in the area within which he has his settlement. It often happens that a man or woman who has a settlement in one area subsequently becomes chargeable to the guardians in another area. In that case the guardians of the place where he becomes chargeable may obtain an order from justices for his removal to his last place of settlement. But this rule is subject to an exception. When a person has resided within a union for one year next preceding the date upon which the guardians apply to the justices for a warrant for his removal, he is said to be "irremovable" or to have acquired a status of "irremovability." The

year's residence must not include any period of imprisonment, detention in a lunatic asylum, hospital, inebriates' home, or industrial school, of service as a soldier, sailor, or marine, or one in which poor relief has been received. But residence in more than one parish in the same union for a year is sufficient, even when in the meantime there has been a readjustment of parishes.

"Residence" means for this purpose the place where the person sleeps, and, therefore, need not be in a house ; and although the residence must be continuous, it does not follow that a mere temporary absence with the intention of return will vitiate the residence for the year. Each case must be judged from its own circumstances.

No person can be removed when he has become chargeable merely by accident or sickness (which for this purpose does not include pregnancy), unless the justices are satisfied that such sickness or accident will cause permanent disability. It should be added that no child under sixteen is removable, when father, stepfather, putative father, mother, or stepmother, as the case may be, is irremovable.

In asking for an order for removal, the guardians must satisfy the justices by evidence of the facts necessary to entitle them to an order, and an order, when made, may be appealed against to quarter sessions. But guardians between whom there is a dispute may submit the question at issue to the decision of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), and in this case the decision of the Board is final.

Settlements.—(See also **SCHOOL AND COLLEGE MISSIONS**.) The motive which gave rise to the formation of settlements was one which sought to destroy the barriers which so sharply separated class from class. Settlements first were

started in London, when Toynbee Hall was founded. No more suitable place than the Metropolis could have been found, since perhaps no other city was so divided into its West and East End, the inhabitants of the one knowing nothing of the lives of the inhabitants of the other. Toynbee Hall was followed by Oxford House, in Bethnal Green, and Cambridge House, in Camberwell; since the foundation of these, other settlements have sprung up in London, and in some provincial towns in connection with the newer universities. The primary idea of a settlement was simply a place in which University men decided to live engaged in their ordinary business or profession, and surrounded by people of a very different station in life. This idea still holds good to an extent, but it has been largely developed; and settlements now have become places of training for the economist, lawyer, ordinand, and social and philanthropic worker. Nor is this to be regretted, since each in after life gains from the other's experience; and the settlement itself creates a wider influence in the neighbourhood in which it is situate. Settlements, then, to-day have for their object the promotion of the religious, social, and educational interests of the people—the neighbourhood. This work is carried out, not only by those resident in the settlement, but also by the band of workers, who gather round and undertake certain definite pieces of work on one or two nights each week.

The work of the local authorities has to a large extent been guided by members of settlements in their own districts: thus workers are found to be members of borough councils and of Poor Law guardians, or taking a lead in the administration of the Unemployed Workmen's Act and the Education (Provision of Meals) Act; or dealing with public health,

sanitation, the housing of the working classes, and open spaces. In addition to its work on public bodies, a settlement has its own particular work. Its religious side may include services and instruction classes on the premises, open-air preaching, and help in the neighbouring parishes. Its more social side will include clubs for boys and men, lectures and educational classes, and debating society. Another side will provide free legal advice (see POOR MAN'S LAWYER) for those not earning more than 35s. a week; while yet another will be the administration of relief, and the training of its workers in the principles which govern the sound administration of help to the poor (see CHARITABLE RELIEF). The work of a settlement seeks to influence the lives of all around, in all their many aspects.

Settlements for ladies have been started in connection with the University Settlements. Their objects are much the same as that of the men's settlements; their work chiefly lies amongst women and girls.

Sewing Trades.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES and TRADE BOARDS.)

Sharing-out Clubs.—(See THRIFT.)

Sheet Metal Work.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Shelters.—(See BOYS' SHELTERS and RESCUE WORK.)

Shirt-making.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Shop Assistants.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Shop Clubs Act, 1902.—This Act constitutes it an offence for an employer to make it a condition of employment:—

(1) That any workman shall discontinue his membership of any friendly society; or

(2) That any workman shall not become a member of any friendly society other than the shop club or thrift fund; or

(3) That any workman shall join a shop club or thrift fund unless the shop club is registered under the Friendly Societies Act, 1896, subject to the provisions of this Act and certified under this Act by the Registrar of Friendly Societies (*q.v.*). Before certifying shop clubs or thrift funds, the registrar must ascertain that at least 75 per cent. of the workmen employed in the shop desire its establishment. In cases where a workman is member of a shop club, and is dismissed or leaves his employment, he is to have the option of remaining a member of the club, without vote or voice in its management, or of having returned to him the amount of his share of the fund of the club as ascertained by actuarial calculation. Shop clubs or thrift funds are defined to mean clubs and societies for providing benefits to workmen in connection with workshops, factories, docks, shops, and warehouses. Superannuation and insurance funds instituted by railways are exempt from the Act.

Shops.—In June, 1901, a Select Committee of the House of Lords, appointed on the motion of Lord Avebury, reported that this subject was one of extreme importance, and that the hours during which shops were open ranged from eighty to ninety per week, in addition to the time the assistants were occupied in clearing up or packing after closing time. Medical testimony showed that the long hours in ill-ventilated rooms were injurious to health, especially in the case of women. In the first draft of its report the committee recommended the Early Closing Bill (giving the local authority, on application, power to make an order for the earlier closing of shops) to the favourable consideration of their lordships. These proposals were debated until 1904, when the Shop Hours Act was passed. It

provides that "a closing order may fix the hours on the several days of the week at which all shops of a district are to be closed for serving customers." It does not interfere with previous legislation, which provided (1) that no person under eighteen shall be employed in a shop for a longer period than seventy-four hours a week; (2) that every employer must provide one seat for every three female assistants. Local authorities enforce the law.

On May 1, 1908, the Home Secretary, Lord (then Mr.) Gladstone in introducing the "Shops Bill," said that the 1904 Act, which was permissive in character and inoperative in practice, had completely broken down. The new Bill proposed to consolidate, amend, and extend the Shops Regulation Acts, 1892 to 1902. It was unfortunate for various reasons, and was referred to a committee of the whole House of Commons. Shops (No. 2) Bill, on the same lines, was brought in by the Home Secretary in 1909, and re-introduced in succeeding sessions.

The Shops Bill was in July, 1911, in the last stages of its passage through the House of Commons, where Clauses 1 to 29 had been amended in Grand Committee. It must therefore be distinctly understood that the measure here described has not passed the House of Lords and was open to material alteration before becoming an Act.

Part I of the Bill dealt with the hours of employment and meal times in shops. It provided that no shop assistant shall be employed in or about the business of a shop for more than sixty hours (exclusive of meal times) in any one week and that on one day of the week his employment shall end at one o'clock in the afternoon. The Factory Acts fixed the daily

hours of work, whereas the Shops Bill fixed a weekly limit of hours. It therefore became necessary for the information of the Shops Inspectors that the hours worked by shop assistants each day should be affixed in some prominent place in the shop and this was provided for in Clause 1. The remainder of the Bill may be briefly summarised as follows:—The hours worked need not be continuous, and the employer may fix distinct times for different assistants, or work may be done in spells, provided that an interval of two hours is allowed to elapse between each spell of work. Notices affixed in the shop must also state the amount of time allowed for intervals for meals which are to be so distributed that no period exceeding six hours shall elapse without such interval. The time allowed for meals is to vary from half an hour to an hour and a half a day and to be dependent upon the number of hours worked. Before a Bank Holiday, on which the shop assistant is not employed, his work need not cease at one o'clock on one day of the week provided that he gets both the Bank Holiday and the half holiday in the ensuing week. In addition to the sixty hours a week, males over 16, and females over 18, may work overtime for sixty hours in the year, with the limitation that during the first two months of employment, overtime shall not exceed two hours for every week they have been in that employment. Overtime may be increased by fifteen hours yearly in any shop where it is the custom to allow each shop assistant a week's holiday on full pay once a year, and by a further two and a half hours for every additional day's holiday allowed on a working day, provided that the total amount of overtime worked in the year does not exceed ninety hours.

Overtime is reckoned in periods of half an hour, and any time less than thirty minutes is considered a complete half-hour. If an assistant works in two or more shops, the notice previously referred to must specify the times of his employment in all the shops in which he works, and his full working hours must not exceed the limits imposed by the Act.

All shops which are not exempted under the second schedule to the Act must close on Sunday. (The second schedule had not been considered in Committee, consequently it may be materially altered, but the trades then exempted were (1) the sale of intoxicating liquors, (2) the sale of refreshments, (3) the sale of motor and cycle accessories, and (4) the sale of newspapers.) Orders may be issued by the Home Office authorising the sale on Sundays of bread (before ten in the morning), confectionery, milk, and tobacco, and allowing a barber to ply his trade before two in the afternoon. If employer, shop assistants, and customers are of the Jewish religion and if the shop is closed on Saturday it may under certain lengthy conditions remain open till two o'clock on Sunday. Nothing in the Act prevents customers being served with medicines or medical or surgical appliances.

Local authorities, however, are still to have the power to make closing orders fixing the hours at which all shops, or shops of any specified class, are to be shut, provided that a majority of the shopkeepers in the area affected agree. Seats, sufficient ventilation, and sanitary conveniences are to be compulsory. A shop assistant is defined as a person mainly employed in a shop to serve customers, receive orders, or dispatch goods. Members of the tradesman's family are defined as shop assistants if

more than one member of the family is employed, and if the shop is above a certain rateable value.

The Home Secretary has proposed to add to the Bill a number of other clauses, but no legislation dealing with the question of living in (see TRUCK ACTS) has been attempted in the Bill.

Short Term Industrial Schools.—(See TRUANT SCHOOLS.)

Sick Room Helps Society.—(See also HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, MIDWIVES and ROYAL BRITISH NURSES' ASSOCIATION.) The "Sick Room Help" represents a social effort primarily directed to the maintenance of the "home," and concerned with the welfare of mothers and children. To the worker in slum-land and in those mean streets which border on slum-land, the derelict state of the homes of the poor when the mother is ill is well known. At such times the kindness of friends and neighbours takes practical effect, and the sacrifices of the poor for each other are above all praise.

Yet frequently the stress of circumstances is too strong. The children are unwashed and unkempt, the dinner uncooked, the family washing accumulates, and the mother from her bed of sickness watches it all in physical discomfort and in mental anguish.

To prevent such disorganisation, to maintain order and safeguard the home of the working man, "Home Care Societies" have been established since 1892 in many German cities, where their economic value is fully recognised. Practically on the same lines a "Sick Room Helps Society" was started, in 1895, for the benefit of the Jewish poor in East London. To-day this Society has developed into a district nursing organisation, differentiating in certain details from the usual district nursing (*q.v.*) associations. The staff of this Society consists

of Queen Victoria Jubilee Institute nurses (*q.v.*), maternity nurses, and of sick room Helps, who work under the supervision of the above-mentioned nurses. The Help is a practical woman sent into the home to clean, cook, wash, and attend to all those little offices that are alike a comfort to the mother and to her family; she is of their class, and has, therefore, the necessary experience for their household management. The Help is thus engaged by the day or half-day, according to the needs of each case claiming attention.

Attendance is only granted on medical certificate that the housewife is incapacitated from undertaking her usual duties. Under other circumstances, as when the mother is absent in hospital or convalescent home, the Help's services may also be requisitioned.

The district nurse finds the Help a very valuable auxiliary, ready with hot water, clean washing, etc., enabling her to attend to her professional work more expeditiously. This Sick Room Helps Society has been raised out of the sphere of an eleemosynary charity into that of a "thrift society" by a well-considered plan of contributory payments.

Members, whose circumstances have been investigated, may pay 1d. or upwards weekly. Attendance of a Help for a fortnight is granted where a minimum payment of 10s. has been made in such small contributions. Members must not withdraw after "help" has been received, or they will not be eligible for re-election. The greater number of members are young women joining so as to provide for the contingencies of their confinement, and thus the Society assimilates to the maternity club (*q.v.*), though its scope is wider.

At the Jubilee Conference of District Nursing in May, 1909, at

Liverpool, attention was called to a system of sick room Helpers, inaugurated by Miss Rathbone in that city, and also to an organisation in Birmingham, which, under the title of "Nine Day Nurses," provides for the requirements of women in confinement, much in the manner of the Cottage Benefit Nursing Association (see VILLAGE NURSING), or of the Sick Room Helps Society.

The Ranyard Nurses have had under their consideration a similar system of Helps as an accessory to their nursing organisation. There is a general feeling that provision in the manner above indicated should be made, and that it must necessarily be on provident lines, either as accessory to a maternity club or attached to local nursing associations.

Sign-writing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Silver Trades.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Skilled Employment.—(See APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Slate Clubs.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES and THRIFT.)

Slums.—(See MUNICIPAL HOUSING.)

Small Holdings.—A small holding is defined in the Small Holdings Act as being land which is less than 50 acres and more than 1 acre in extent.

Small holdings are to be supplied by county councils (*q.v.*) and county boroughs (Secs. 4 and 7), and by boroughs and urban district councils (*q.v.*) to persons within or without the county who apply and will themselves cultivate the holding (Sec. 1). Every county council must appoint a small holdings and allotments (*q.v.*) committee (Sec. 50) to which outsiders may be co-opted, and to which the council may delegate all its powers except the power of raising a rate or borrowing money.

Money may be borrowed for small holdings from the Public Works Loans Commissioners for eighty years at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

When a county council receives applications for small holdings it must proceed as follows:—

(1) Inquire as to the suitability and means of the applicant so far as necessary to judge whether he can cultivate the holding (Sec. 10 (1) c.).

(2) Consider whether it can proceed without loss (Secs. 7 (3) and 17 (1)).

(3) Frame a scheme for submission to the Board of Agriculture (*q.v.*), who are empowered to pay one-half of the loss on any approved scheme (Sec. 6 (4)).

Land for small holdings may be acquired by agreement under the Lands Clauses Acts, but on receipt of a representation from any parish, district, or borough council as to the need for small holdings, Commissioners appointed by the Board of Agriculture must report to the Board any case where it is desirable that a scheme for small holdings should be made (Sec. 3), and the Board may require the county council to make such a scheme within six months (Sec. 4).

A new procedure is applied for land taken compulsorily (Secs. 38 to 44). The council may submit an order to the Board of Agriculture for taking the land compulsorily, and after a local inquiry the order may be confirmed by the Board and the compensation determined by a single arbitrator, who shall not make any additional allowance in respect of compulsory purchase. The land may be either bought or hired for a period not less than fourteen nor more than thirty-five years (Sec. 39 (2)).

Land may be let by either county or parish councils to persons working on a co-operative system or to associations formed for the purpose

of creating or promoting allotments or small holdings (Secs. 9 (2) and 27 (6)).

A county council may form and assist societies on a co-operative basis (see CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES), having for their object the provision or profitable working of small holdings or allotments, whether in:—

- (a) The purchase of requisites;
- (b) The sale of produce;
- (c) Credit banking;
- (d) Insurance or otherwise;

and may make grants or advances to such societies or guarantee advances (Sec. 49).

The 22,888 acres bought by the county councils for small holdings in 1909 were purchased at an average cost of £32 3s. an acre; the 16,584 acres rented on lease paid a rent of 25s. 9d. per acre. Loans for the purpose of small holdings sanctioned by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) amounted to £650,912. Seventy-four dwelling-houses were erected by the councils in 1909.

(1) The Board of Agriculture repay half the expenses of ascertaining the demand for small holdings incurred before the 1st April, 1910.

(2) They repay the whole of the expenses of proceedings in relation to the acquisition of land for small holdings.

(3) Each council has to analyse its expenditure under the heads of salaries, travelling expenses, fees to valuers, office and general expenses, and send it to the Board.

(4) The Board will repay conveyancing expenses, stamp duty, scale charges of solicitor, preparing and settling a draft conveyance, and completing the purchase in connection with the acquisition of land.

Expenditure incurred in relation to the acquisition of land is repaid by the Board so soon as it has been paid by the county councils. In the case of expenses of ascertaining the demand for small holdings, the

Treasury regulations require that the accounts of the councils shall be audited before the repayment is made.

The rent charged by a council depends on the price paid for the land, and the cost of adaptation, such as fencing, road-making, etc., with the addition of a sum to cover management and other expenses.

The Somersetshire County Council have resolved that the following additions be made to the estimated annual outgoings of small holdings in calculating the rents to be charged to small holdings:—

(a) Where there is no building on the small holding, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. should be added to the rent for office and establishment charges, together with a reasonable addition for repairs and contingencies.

(b) Where there are buildings, such a percentage as the valuers may advise, having regard to the size, age, and repair of the buildings, up to a maximum of 20 per cent. on the following basis—5 per cent. for management, 10 per cent. for repairs, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for insurance, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for contingencies.

(c) The charge for management of holdings let to an association under Section 9 of the Act, is reduced to 5 per cent.

A dwelling-house and outbuildings would, of course, add to the rent. In the case of purchase, one-fifth of the purchase price must be paid down, the balance to be paid in half-yearly instalments extending over a period not exceeding fifty years.

The best method of helping small holdings is to encourage the letting of land to associations, and two of the most important experiments, so far, have been the Ledsham Estate of 853 acres in Cheshire, and the Wick Farm, Watton, let by the Norfolk County Council

to the Weylands Small Holdings Association.

In each case considerable improvements have been made in the produce of the land, and an increase in the number of men employed and quantity of stock kept. Other societies include :—

In Northamptonshire—Clipson, 107 acres; Rothwell, 59½ acres; Rushden, 264 acres; Hannington, 31 acres; Hargrave, 17 acres; Nathar Heyford, 140 acres; Irchester, 15 acres; Kingsthorpe, 335 acres: the last by the Northampton Borough Council.

In Bedfordshire—Biggleswade Society, 368 acres in 1910, with another 250 acres in 1911; while land has also been provided for the Stotfold Society, and in Wiltshire, for the Mere Society, 250 acres.

Smallpox.—(See INFECTIOUS DISEASES and NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Small Slums and Unhealthy Houses.—(See also ARTISANS' DWELLINGS, BLOCK DWELLINGS, CLOSING ORDERS, HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL DWELLINGS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, OVERCROWDING, and WORKMEN'S NATIONAL HOUSING COUNCIL.) Part II of the Housing Act of 1890, as amended, provides for :—

(1) The inspection of every sanitary district from time to time, with a view to ascertain whether there are any houses unfit for human habitation (Sec. 17 (1), Act of 1909).

(2) The keeping of such records of inspection as the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) may prescribe (Sec. 17 (1), Act of 1909).

(3) The closing by order of the local authority of any dwelling-house, represented by any officer of the authority as being unfit for human habitation. (Sec 17 (2), Act of 1909). The order to become operative subject to an appeal to the Local Government Board, but

without recourse to the courts of law.

(4) The demolition by local authority of any dwelling-house where a closing order has remained operative over three months (Sec. 18, Act of 1909).

(5) The enforcement by local authorities of a provision that houses let under certain rentals shall be kept in all respects reasonably fit for habitation (Sec. 75 and Secs. 14, 15, Act of 1909).

(6) Removal of obstructive buildings (Sec. 38, and Sec. 28 (1), (2) of the Act of 1909).

(7) The reconstruction of small unhealthy areas (Secs. 30 and 40 with Secs. 23, 24, and 33 of the Act of 1909).

It applies to all urban and rural sanitary authorities (*q.v.*), but those in London and rural districts must communicate all steps taken to the county council (Sec. 45 and Schedule 1).

The medical officer of health (*q.v.*) or any four ratepayers may inform the local authority of any building :

(a) So dangerous or injurious to health as to be unfit for human habitation.

(b) Which stops ventilation (*q.v.*) or otherwise conduces to make other buildings injurious to health.

(c) Which prevents proper measures from being carried into effect for remedying any nuisance (*q.v.*) injurious to health (Secs. 31, 38, and 39).

Powers of complaint of the non-exercise of the above powers are given by Sec. 10 of the Act of 1909.

After the 1st July, 1910, a cellar dwelling used habitually as a sleeping place shall be deemed to be a dwelling-house unfit for human habitation if—

(a) The surface of the floor is more than 3 ft. below the surface of the part of the street adjoining or nearest to the room; and

(b) Is either not on an average at

least 7 ft. in height from floor to ceiling, or does not comply with regulations prescribed by the Local Government Board for securing the proper ventilation and lighting of such rooms and the protection thereof against dampness, effluvia, or exhalation.

Smithing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Smoke Nuisance.—The purification of the air is an important factor in the preservation of public health, and may naturally claim some attention from the social worker, quite apart from the interest of the subject in the effect of smoke-laden air upon ancient buildings. It is open to anyone to take legal proceedings because his neighbour is creating smoke in such a manner as to be a nuisance and injurious to health, but the procedure is expensive, and often involves legal points of a complicated nature. The more common means of mitigating the evil effects of the qualities of smoke arising in urban areas is by the action of the local authorities (*q.v.*) under their particular local Acts (see ACTS OF PARLIAMENT). Thus there is no general statute applicable to the whole country, and it is thought that in many places the law might be strengthened with advantage. Inquiry, however, will reveal in some cases that it is not the letter of the law which is at fault so much as inadequate administration, owing to the absence of any force of public opinion. Difficulty is frequently found in the limitation of the offence to the emission of *black* smoke. A singular offensive and recent form of the smoke nuisance is the foul discharge from the exhaust of a motor. Motor omnibuses may receive attention by being reported to the licensing authority (the police), whose regulations punish this defect; but the motor-car manages to elude the grasp of the law on the

ground that the offence is due to a "temporary or accidental cause," generally the negligence of the driver.

Good work has been done in directing attention to the evils of the smoke nuisance and enforcing the remedies by the Coal Smoke Abatement Society, founded primarily to deal with the matter in the Metropolis. Local authorities have been aroused to a sense of their duty by the Society's appointment of an inspector, who reported observations to the authorities, and so stimulated their activities until they took action through their own inspectors. Tests have been conducted with a view to the diminution of the smoke emitted from the domestic fireplace, but obviously this is a large matter which will require long attention. The increased use of gas fires may be a step in the right direction. An interesting development has been the holding of exhibitions whereby may be illustrated in a practical manner the contribution that may be made by each individual in his own home to the purification of the air to the advantage of himself and the community. These have been followed by public lectures in working class districts and for stokers and firemen.

Soap Packers.—(See BOY LABOUR.)

Social Institutes' Union.—(See also GIRLS' CLUBS and WORKING MEN'S CLUBS.) Like the National Home Reading Union (*q.v.*), this Union was founded by Dr. J. B. Paton. Its primary aim is to provide some opportunity, other than the public-house, for the social intercourse which is recognised to be a necessary and desirable part of life. The method adopted is to obtain the use of schools and other suitable buildings for educational and other recreative meetings, in connection with which may be

organised benefit, thrift, athletic, and friendly societies. The Union encourages the organisation of classes which may be recognised by the Board of Education (*q.v.*), and the institutes obviously provide a suitable centre for reading circles (*q.v.*), ambulance classes (see *AMBULANCE WORK*), and tutorial classes (*q.v.*). With a view to giving definiteness to this aim, the Union endeavours to connect the social institutes in London (the base of its operations) with the Polytechnics (*q.v.*) of their respective districts. Institutes can be organised either for men or women, and provincial branches can be affiliated with the London centres. The central council prescribes the regulations for the guidance of local committees, who attain powers of self-government when there are fifty paying members. The fee of membership is 2s. per quarter in advance, or 2d. per week payable to the local secretary. The local committee on receiving information, in writing, that a member has been unable to pay his subscription owing to want of work or other special cause, may allow his membership to continue and remit the whole or part of his subscription. The membership of men's institutes is restricted to men of not less than twenty-one years of age, but youths of eighteen may be admitted to membership under special conditions approved by the local committee and central council. The minimum age for admission to women's institutes is eighteen years. The chief activities of the institute are cared for by the refreshments and entertainments sub-committee, which is responsible for the Saturday night concerts, for any other entertainments, and for the management of the refreshment bar. The games and sports committee assist the formation of clubs among the members for indoor and outdoor recreation (*q.v.*). (See also *NATIONAL*

PHYSICAL RECREATION SOCIETY.) The education sub-committee makes arrangements for that part of the work, and a finance sub-committee should secure that the work of the institute is self-supporting.

Social Service Committees.—(See *DIOCESAN SOCIAL SERVICE COMMITTEES*.)

Social Reform in the United States.—Among the newer social reform movements in the United States, perhaps in many ways the most fundamental and the most important, is the so-called Rochester Social Centre Movement. This is a movement, commenced in Rochester, N.Y., in 1907, for the use of public schools outside of school hours, for the civic and educational welfare of the people. It commenced with the appropriation of \$5,000 by the Board of Education of that city to start social work in one of the schools. The experiment was so successful, that it has to-day extended to all the schools of the city, and is being copied to an extent all over the United States. The schools are provided with gymnastic apparatus for girls and boys, and also for women. There are provisions for dancing, amusements and innumerable clubs. These clubs are mainly civic, Rochester alone now having fourteen such clubs. At these clubs all political questions are discussed, and representatives of all parties present their views before the people. They are thus not non-partisan, but of all parties, radical and conservative. Above all, they consider civic questions, and the motto of the city has become "Do it for Rochester." A local politician said that he was very glad he could now talk politics in a school house and not in a saloon. School politics are beginning to drive out saloon politics. The movement has been very successful in reaching the large alien population in Rochester,

notably the Italians. It teaches the aliens patriotism, and makes them feel at home, showing what Italy has done for Americans, as well as what America can do for Italians. The spirit is entirely democratic and fraternal. Great success has been attained in reaching wayward boys, the "hoodlums" of our cities. A wealthy citizen asked what had become of a gang of boys which had annoyed his neighbourhood, and the answer was that they had become a club at one of the schools. Governor Hughes of New York, at a banquet of the Social Centre, said, "I am more interested in what you are doing, and what it stands for, than in anything else in the world. You are buttressing the foundations of democracy." The movement is being copied in all our large cities, though in different ways.

A somewhat similar movement is the spread of the play idea in schools, notably through the efforts of the National Playground Association. This has gone so far, that at the last Playground Congress, Dr. Woods Hutchinson said, "Cut down the school hours one-half and double the playground hours, and you will have done more for the physical, mental, and moral health of young Americans than by any other possible step. Better a playground without a school-house than a school-house without a playground." In Chicago, the building of the Field Houses is in line with this idea, and the large movement for the use of the schools for play purposes in New York City is in the same direction. Dances have occasionally been held by classes and sometimes by teachers, but on January 20th, 1911, one of the New York public schools gave a regular dance for 300 young people with many parents and teachers. It is believed that neighbourhood dances will become common in

public schools. Much attention has been recently called to the evil of dance halls in city life. Mrs. Israels, of New York, after investigation, reported that 95 per cent. of the working girls of New York go to some dance hall. These are by no means all evil, but in almost all cases expose the young to great temptation, as they are almost always conducted by or at least in connection with saloons. Mrs. Israels has now started two reform dance halls in New York. The Mayor of Philadelphia has recently declared that no school should be opened without provision for dances.

A somewhat similar movement is the agitation for better entertainments in the line of motion pictures. A National Censor Board exists in New York, and at present 90 per cent. of the films exhibited in the United States are passed by this Censor Board. The Board was created by the voluntary action of the better manufacturers of films to defend themselves against the competition of those who would show debasing pictures. At present if any operator in the United States shows improper pictures, it is reported to the New York Board, and the main dealers refuse to sell films to him, so that few dare longer to show pictures not approved by the Board. One important recent movement in the United States has been the development of various kinds of exhibits in social reform. This commenced two or three years ago with an exhibit concerning the congestion of population in New York City, and to-day exhibits are held of every kind. Exhibits of methods in tuberculosis treatment, exhibits of sweat-shop-made goods, are some of these, culminating in a Child Welfare Exhibit, costing some \$70,000 and for which sixteen months were spent in preparation. Exhibits of what could be done for

the child in almost every direction were shown and attended by vast numbers of people.

The tuberculosis movement in the United States has reached large proportions. During 1909 \$8,000,000 was spent for the prevention of tuberculosis, and in 1910 nearly \$15,000,000. The largest item, \$11,376,500 for treatment in sanatoria and hospitals, is almost double of that of the year before. Anti-tuberculosis associations spent \$760,500, tuberculosis dispensaries \$889,000, and special state and municipal expenses total \$1,750,000.

The most significant point in the figures is felt to be the increase in the proportion to the whole of the public money spent. It rose in 1910 from 53.5 per cent. to 62.6 per cent. The total of public moneys, \$9,267,900, is almost double the amount for 1909. A great deal is being done in the way of County Hospitals and very many open camps. A considerable amount of money is spent in the line of popular education. In some of the motion picture shows, films have been exhibited, teaching how to battle with tuberculosis. The motto of the movement is "No uncared for tuberculosis in 1915."

The year 1910 saw an awakened interest in improving penal and reform institutions. This has been largely due to a meeting of the International Prison Reform Association in Washington. America has perhaps led the world in prison reform, especially of recent years in the establishment of Children's Courts and the Probation system. New York State has now many kinds of special courts, night courts for men and night courts for women, children's courts, and there has been a great improvement in the conduct of trials and the treatment of those detained. The conduct of the lower courts has been largely taken out of the hands of the

policemen, and put under the care of judges experienced in particular lines.

Another important movement that has grown up recently in the United States is the so-called Big Brother movement. This represents organisations of men, each one of whom undertakes to help and be a friend to one boy. It commenced in 1904 in connection with the Children's Court of New York City. The Clerk of the Court, Mr. Coulter, found that many of the boys went astray mainly through the lack of wise guidance, and at a society meeting of men called for volunteers each of whom would help one boy. Forty responded, and from that beginning has grown a movement now spreading through many cities of the United States, and incorporated in 1909 under the head of "The Big Brother Movement." It does considerable towards getting positions for boys, and also vacations in summer camps, etc. This last year a "Big Sister" movement has been begun on similar lines largely through the interest of Mrs. W. K. Vanderbilt.

A very general tendency appears in the United States towards civic reform in the way of plans for city improvement, material and moral, uniting all the forces for civic betterment. These largely began with the Pittsburgh Survey, where very many specialists in civic activity concentrated their endeavours in making an exact survey of the industrial and social conditions in that great centre of the steel trade. The conditions found were a revelation to the United States. The high wages paid the steel workers have been proverbial in this country, but it was found that these wages were paid to a relatively very few skilled men, while the large proportion of the work was done by unskilled labour, mainly immigrant alien labour,

largely from Eastern Europe, and at very low wages. The resulting conditions in housing and in poverty and immorality were made known, and startled the country. It has led to a civic regeneration in Pittsburgh, and now all the forces for good in that city are banded together to make a better Pittsburgh. A somewhat similar movement can be found to-day in many of our larger cities, often taking the form of an endeavour to obtain results two or three years later, as for an Ideal Boston in 1915.

A notable event of 1910 has been the completion of the far-reaching investigation into immigration, conducted by a Commission appointed by Congress in 1907. Its results were published in 1911 in forty large volumes—the most recent and thoroughgoing investigation of industrial conditions in the United States. It has been found that the large majority of common labourers in the United States, immigrant or native-born, do not receive wages enough to support life on the American standard without supplementing their wages by the earnings of wife or child, or by taking in lodgers, with resultant overcrowding, infant mortality, and laxity of morals. It seems to be the fact that the coming of the immigrants by millions into the United States, if it has not reduced the wages of American workers, has driven them into higher lines of work, and has made the basic work of America an affair of aliens on the living standards of Eastern Europe. The result is a very large agitation and general discussion of the necessity of restricting immigration. This, however, is opposed by many of those recently from Europe, and by the large corporations and ship companies whose agents in Southern and Eastern Europe are very active in assisting immigration. There seems little doubt that

immigration will be more restricted, but as yet there is little agreement as to the lines on which this can be done best.

A very wide movement in the United States has grown up in connection with the various men's brotherhoods of the various denominations and churches. In very many cities these have developed federated bodies mainly organised for social and philanthropic purposes.

Social Welfare Association.—The object of the Association, which was inaugurated at a meeting at the Mansion House in March, 1910, is to prevent overlapping by the co-ordination of the numerous charitable agencies in the Metropolis. Its aim is to bring public departments and local authorities into close relation with societies and individuals engaged in social service, and to establish general principles for common action. The chief method of giving effect to this purpose is the establishment of councils of social welfare (*q.v.*) in each Metropolitan borough (*q.v.*). The central council does its work by committees, each of which gives attention to a department of social activity, such as the welfare of children, employment and apprenticeship of juveniles, the care of the blind, supply of surgical appliances, etc.

The following main principles are put forward by the Association to guide the formation of local councils that they should be (1) representative; (2) non-political: that they should not undertake any form of almsgiving either as a body or through its committees, and that the functions of the local council should be of a consultative character and that it should act through an executive committee. The first work of the committee is to obtain and collate information concerning the various charities and other agencies engaged in social service, and the

administration of assistance in the borough. The information should be made available for general information in a suitable form, and action taken according to the requirements revealed by the investigation. *Social Service*, by the Rev. G. M. Bell, Hon. Secretary of the Stepney Council, is an example of what has already been done in this direction. Registration of assistance (*q.v.*) given, supplies information, and is in itself an effective piece of work in preventing overlapping and promoting co-operation. In a large majority of cases, however, this work had already been undertaken and well organised by the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*).

Social Work for Women.—(See WOMEN IN SOCIAL WORK.)

Social Worker, Training of.—(See also WOMEN IN SOCIAL WORK.) The importance of training for the social worker is receiving a recognition which is constantly increasing, and it will be useful, therefore, to explain how such training may be obtained under the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) which affords facilities for all-round training in social work. No fee is charged by the Society, nor, on the other hand, is any salary offered except to probationers for employment in the Society's own service. Persons wishing to be trained should communicate with the Secretary of the Society at Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W., giving some particulars about themselves, and stating in what parts of London they are prepared to work and how much time they can give. A personal interview should be suggested whenever possible, and the name of a reference should be supplied. Arrangements are made, so far as possible, for workers to attend at offices within easy reach of their residence, and they can offer just so much of their time as they can

spare. Office hours are from ten to five.

The training includes instruction and practice in interviewing applicants for assistance, ascertaining from them accurate particulars as to their circumstances and needs, visiting them in their homes, making inquiries of employers, landlords, relatives, clergy, district visitors (*q.v.*), Poor Law officials, and references. Letters of all kinds are written under the instruction of the Secretary, and reports are drafted for the information of those who have referred people to the Society for investigation. Workers in training are allowed to attend the meetings of the committee, and are encouraged to take part in the discussion of cases, especially of those on which they themselves have worked. Experience is gained as to the working of the Poor Law; visits are paid on behalf of hospital almoners (see HOSPITALS), either to ascertain the suitability of out-patients for free hospital treatment on financial or other grounds, or to see whether the sanitary conditions of the home are compatible with the satisfactory treatment of the case, or whether the treatment prescribed is being properly carried out.

A worker comes in contact with many of the other societies at work in the district, and sees something of their methods, such as the Invalid Children's Aid Association (*q.v.*), *crèches* (see DAY NURSERIES), health societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS), tuberculosis dispensaries (see ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM), invalid kitchen, and apprenticeship committees (see APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION). In connection with the raising of money for the cases assisted, the worker learns what societies will give money towards the treatment of special cases, and how they should be approached;

a knowledge is also gained of the numerous institutions for various types of ease, such as almshouses (see ENDOWED CHARITIES), homes for incurables (*q.v.*), penitentiaries (see RESCUE WORK), training homes of all kinds, hospitals (*q.v.*), sanatoria (*q.v.*), etc., and of the condition of admission, with details of cost ; while the proper method of getting necessary medical and other certificates is learnt at the same time. Something will also be seen of the conditions of emigration work (see COLONISATION), which, in the case of Canada (*q.v.*), has now been rendered much more complicated by the restrictions of the Canadian Government. A useful knowledge of the methods of procuring surgical instruments of all kinds and of their proper cost will be acquired. In addition to this special instruction, experience will be obtained of general office and business routine, including the filing and indexing of papers and letters, the keeping and balancing of accounts, the drawing up of financial statements and lists of subscribers, and the keeping of minutes of committee meetings. Advice will also be given by the secretary as to suitable courses of reading and study in connection with social and industrial problems and as to courses of lectures on such subjects which may usefully be attended at the School of Sociology (*q.v.*) and elsewhere. Arrangements are also made for students to visit institutions from time to time, such as schools, workhouses (*q.v.*), infirmaries (*q.v.*), training homes, etc.

It should be added that the above information relates to the London Charity Organisation Society ; similar training may be gained in many of the corresponding societies in provincial towns, but not in all (see GUILDS OF HELP).

Society for Promoting the Employment of Women (23, Berners

Street, Oxford Street, W.).—(See also CENTRAL BUREAU FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.) This Society was founded, in 1859, "to promote the employment of women in occupations suitable to their sex, by collecting and diffusing useful information on the subject, by establishing an office to be a centre of inquiry, by practically ascertaining the capacity of women for some of the occupations hitherto closed to them, and by encouraging their better and more complete education and training." In its early years the Society did excellent pioneer work in opening up new means of employment for women. Its aim was to deal with the increasing number of women who were obliged to earn their livings, but "were not accustomed to manual labour." The first need was to procure for them a sound general education and systematic technical training for their work. A commercial school was started and carried on for some years. The first adult book-keeping and shorthand classes for women were started by the Society, and in many other ways new forms of employment were found for women. At the present time the Society, acting through a committee, devotes itself to giving advice as to the choice of a profession or industry, and information as to training, its cost, and the length of time required for it. The committee has also instituted loan funds, through which fees are provided for those unable to meet the necessary expenses of training. The loans are repaid by instalments after the training has been received and work has been found. The scheme has met with great success both as a means of helping the worker through a difficult crisis and in the fact that the loans are repaid. The Society also keeps a register of those needing employment, which

is particularly useful for those in search of temporary employment.

Society for Promoting Female Welfare (6, Thayer Street, Manchester Square, W.) This Society was founded in 1866 as a centre of union for institutions for girls and young women of good character in Great Britain and Ireland. "Its work embraces all charitable agencies, industrial, educational, benevolent, and missionary (reformatory institutions alone excepted), which are designed to promote the welfare of women, and can advantageously unite for purposes of mutual assistance on a Scriptural and Protestant basis." The Society undertakes to make known to subscribers and others any details of information about institutions associated with it, and to inform the latter about applicants for admission. The Society helps the institutions by means of sales of work and by receiving subscriptions for them, keeps an employment register, and provides for the safe transit of young women in London. The Society has also taken action in several directions, especially on behalf of waitresses in restaurants and in pressing for the promised Shop Act (see SHOPS). The Society also works in friendly co-operation with other societies dealing with the care of young women and girls.

Society for the Protection of Life from Fire.—(See FIRE; HEROES, DEPENDENTS of and REWARDS FOR BRAVERY.)

Society of Infant Consultations (77, Welbeck Street, W.).—(See also MILK DEPÔTS.) This Society has been formed in order to bring into closer relationship all those engaged or interested in the work of infant consultations, schools for mothers (*q.v.*), and similar institutions dealing with the health of infants in various parts of the country. Health visitors (*q.v.*) and district visitors

(*q.v.*) are particularly invited to join. The aim of the Society is to promote the establishment of such institutions, to advise as to their organisation, and to hold meetings for discussion on the work done in them. Infant consultations may be established by private enterprise, either as independent organisations or as special branches of health societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS). When one is instituted, the medical officer of health for the district should, if possible, be chairman, and local councils, charitable institutions, religious bodies, and Poor Law authorities should be represented on the executive committee. This committee should be responsible for all organisation, and should take care to gain the support of local medical men, to train lay workers, and secure the co-operation of district nurses (*q.v.*) and maternity nurses. Infant consultations may also be established as municipal undertakings organised by the Public Health Authority, or hospitals (*q.v.*), provident dispensaries (*q.v.*), and similar institutions. The medical officer should be engaged in purely medical details, such as the examination of the baby, the taking of notes, the instruction of mothers, and of his assistants. Women sanitary inspectors, nurses, and health visitors should, when within the clinic, deal mainly with details which are not purely medical. Outside the clinic, sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*) should refer suitable cases to the clinic; the nurses and visitors should keep in touch with cases that have been referred to the clinic, and record their progress.

Society of Poor Law Workers.—(See also GUARDIANS.) This Society, founded in 1898, exists to bring together for discussions on Poor Law reform members of Metropolitan boards of Guardians who have studied the difficult problems of Poor Law administration. The

Society holds four or five meetings a year, and as a result of these issues memoranda making various suggestions as to Poor Law reform, which are circulated amongst Metropolitan and some of the large provincial boards. The members of the Society are convinced that the initiative in Poor Law reform should be taken by Guardians, whose position enables them to know what reforms may be made, whether by means of administrative action or new legislation. The Society also publishes a series of papers on various subjects with which guardians are immediately concerned, a list of which may be obtained from the Hon. Secretary, Miss F. Kensington, 145, Gloucester Terrace, Hyde Park, W. These papers are brief and practical, and as they are written by expert workers, should be obtained by any social worker who has been elected a Guardian or desires to know what kind of work Guardians have to do.

Sociological Society.—(See also SCHOOL OF SOCIOLOGY.) The Society was founded in 1903 for the scientific study of the origin and development, the decay and extinction, the structure and classification, the internal functions and interaction of societies. It is the aim of the Society to afford a common ground upon which workers from various fields may profitably meet to contribute the result of their studies towards a fuller social philosophy, including the natural and civil history of man, his achievements and ideals. This conception of social evolution involves a clearer valuation of the conditions and forces which respectively hinder or help development, which make towards degeneration or towards progress. The Society has endeavoured to include three main classes of members. First, there are those who devote themselves specially and scientifically to the business of

research in all those lines of inquiry which concern man as a social being. The second class were described by Mr. Bryce, in a presidential address, as amateurs, interested in the subject, as educated and intelligent men who want to know something of what is going on, who read books on the subject from the scientific down to the popular, and who would like to gain from the Society the broad results of inquiry, or have them explained by a scientific man in non-technical language. Between these two classes is the third, which the Society deserves to enlist—the social worker. Broadly speaking, the class consists of what may be called practical men, who are not able to devote themselves entirely to scientific study, but deal with sociological problems in the course of their daily life. The Society conducts its operations in a manner similar to that of other learned societies. A valuable series of "Sociological Papers" have been superseded by the *Sociological Review*, published quarterly. The study of sociology has been endowed in London University, and groups, affiliated to the Society, have been formed at other universities for study. The wide range of subjects which have received the attention of the Society shows that it has succeeded in a considerable measure in bringing together, for the discussion of social theory, the promotion of inquiry into social phenomena, and the consideration from a scientific point of view of all schemes of social improvement, those who, holding differing views, are united in a common bond of scientific method, and, resting on what has been done in the past, are aiming at the extension of the science in the future.

Soldiers' and Sailors' Families Association.—The above association was founded in February, 1885, to deal with the many cases of the

wives of the troops ordered on service to Egypt.

From the very beginning, the object was not only to collect funds, but to establish an organisation for the personal care of individual families.

The Council of the Association has ever since strictly adhered to these objects, and between the years 1885 and 1899 branches were established in practically every county in the United Kingdom.

Each county has its own committee, and within the county there is a committee for each petty sessional division, as also for important boroughs within the same, and each parish or ward has one or more representatives; in London the organisation has been based on the Parliamentary divisions.

On the outbreak of the South African War in the autumn of 1899, the existing skeleton organisation immediately expanded, so that in the course of a very few weeks the whole country was thoroughly provided with local representatives.

These local committees not only raised the necessary funds, but administered the same in accordance with general principles issued by the Council at head-quarters, and, as showing the amount of work which was then undertaken by the voluntary agents of the association, it may be mentioned that at one time during the war not less than 100,000 cases were in receipt of regular weekly allowances, and that during the three years the total amount of money expended on the families of men serving at the front was over one and a quarter millions.

Since 1902 the organisation has been well maintained.

As regards the general principles of assistance, the primary aim of each local committee is to obtain work or employment for those who need it.

The encouragement of self-help

being a cardinal feature of the association, monetary grants are only made where applicants are ready and willing to help themselves.

All grants are purely temporary, and nothing in the form of pensions (*q.v.*) or permanent allowances is ever granted, the object in making the grant being, as far as possible, permanently to benefit the recipient, and render her self-supporting.

Much good work is also done by the association in securing the admission of children into schools or institutions.

The keynote of the work generally is personal administration, in order that to whatever part of the kingdom soldiers' or sailors' families may be sent, there may be found sympathetic ladies or gentlemen to whom they can turn in time of trouble.

The wives and families of men still serving in the Royal Navy, coastguards, regular Army, and Royal Marines have the first claim on the Association; and temporary assistance is also granted to the widows and orphans of those men who died while serving, since the foundation of the association in 1885.

As exceptional cases, grants are also made to the wives, etc., of discharged soldiers or sailors, if the marriage took place while the man was serving, as also to aged parents, if really dependent on their sons.

In time of war, special instructions are issued by the Council regarding assistance to the wives of any men who may be serving with either the land or sea forces of the Crown.

Soldiers or sailors themselves, as also the wives, etc., of men who married after their discharge, or who were discharged previous to 1885, are ineligible for assistance from the association's funds.

The Officers' Branch, established in 1886, gives temporary

grants to necessitous officers' widows, and since 1899 has maintained homes for officers' widows and daughters at Wimbledon.

A nursing branch was established, in 1892, with the object of providing properly qualified district nurses to attend the wives and families of soldiers and sailors in large garrison and seaport towns, as well as to instruct them in matters of health and hygiene.

The nurses so employed are called "Alexandra" nurses.

The establishment of such nurses has proved a most valuable adjunct to the work of the association, as not only supplying a much felt want, but also as forming a medium through which cases requiring help are found, and assistance given.

At the end of 1910 forty nurses were employed at a cost of £100 a year each, twenty-eight at sixteen stations at home and twelve at four stations abroad.

A clothing branch was established, in 1895, with the object of supplying suitable clothing to the wives and families of soldiers and sailors serving in the United Kingdom, and to depôts at foreign stations for the families of men returning home, especially from India and hot climates during the troping season.

The association has also undertaken the administration, free of charge, of various special funds, such as the Serpent Fund, the Edgar Boat Fund, the Orwell Relief Fund, and the North-West Frontier Fund.

Soldiers' and Sailors' Help Society.

—(See also NAVY EMPLOYMENT AGENCY.) This Society, which works in co-operation with the War Office and the National Association for the employment of Reserved and Discharged Soldiers (*q.v.*), endeavours to maintain an organisation throughout the Empire so that the soldiers and sailors

may be provided with a "friend," to whom they may be commended on discharge from the Army or Navy, for aid in obtaining employment or other forms of help suited to their needs. The organisation is mainly upon the lines of the county boundaries, with divisions, where necessary, for the convenience of administration and divisions confined to large military or naval centres. In order to help soldiers and sailors to find employment, the friend should keep in touch with local employers of labour and special agencies. The friend should examine the discharge certificate of an applicant for help, and be able to appreciate the distinctions in the characters recorded therein. The friend also helps those who are on sick furlough or discharged as invalids, by providing them with nourishing food, literature, etc.; to obtain orders for convalescent homes, and to visit those in such local homes or in civil hospitals. A man leaving the parish or ward is commended by the friend to the friend or district head for the neighbourhood of his destination. The Society makes loans to men in special cases. One of the objects of the Society is to teach useful trades to men discharged as medically unfit, who, by reason of their disability consequent on their service, are unable to take ordinary employment, and to make such cases, as far as possible, self-supporting by disposing of their work. Many excellent articles, useful as well as ornamental, are supplied from the Society's workrooms in London, Brookwood, Edinburgh, and Dublin; and an illustrated catalogue of the goods is issued from 122, Brompton Road, S.W. The Society also maintains convalescent homes and homes of rest for discharged soldiers and sailors who are disabled and necessitous, and also, when necessary, contributes to the

support of such cases in their own homes.

Soup Kitchens.—These are institutions for supplying soup and bread and similar cheap food to the poor and especially to poor children. So many and various are they, that no general description will apply to any one. The best supply food to those who need it at cost price. But in most cases it is difficult to discover who is in need, and in very many cases no effort to do so is made. As a general rule, it is probably wiser for the social worker to seek for and remedy the evils which lead to the demand for soup kitchens. Many a family of which the members have recourse to this kind of charitable relief (*q.v.*) could be led by tactful advice and sympathy to become self-supporting. But where widespread lack of employment, exceptional distress due to severe weather, and the like are the cause of poverty so pressing, that neither the Guardians nor voluntary agencies can deal adequately with it, soup kitchens are of value in alleviating the suffering of the half-starved. In any case, as far as possible, payment should be made for the food received. In the case of children, soup kitchens should avoid competing with education authorities in the feeding of school children (*q.v.*).

South Africa, Colonisation in.—(See also COLONISATION.) At the close of the great war, there seemed to be a great opening in South Africa for British emigrants. Owing, however, to economic and political causes, the outflow has come down to 3,800 during ten months of 1910. Artisans proceeding thither find the black races competing with them, and by their overwhelming numbers almost outdoing the white at every job. Capetown is a city of very diverse nationalities, and it is a true picture of the whole Union. Shop-

men, artisans, and labourers who went to South Africa ten years ago find it hard to get on. The irrigation of the vast healthy veldt will make a great difference in the whole country, as such high plains, if properly irrigated and drained, would yield any and every crop, and might empty their wealth by light railways into the eastern ports. As a rule, it is well to consult the South African Association (25, Army and Navy Mansions, 115, Victoria Street, S.W.) as to the employment to be found for lads and young men. Under no circumstances should any girl or woman be allowed to go without special arrangements as to voyage, reception, and a post. Persons with small capital and ladies willing to adapt themselves to the requirements of settlers, will find a good field and, without doubt, one of the healthiest portions of the whole Empire.

The following are the names and addresses of the official agents resident in London: High Commissioner for the Union, 72, Victoria Street, S.W.; Cape Colony (Agent-General), 98, Victoria Street, S.W.; Natal (Agent-General), 26, Victoria Street, S.W.; Orange River Colony, 121, Victoria Street, S.W.; Transvaal, 72, Victoria Street, S.W.

Special Orders.—(See FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Special Schools.—(See also BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF; DEAF, EDUCATION OF CRIPPLES, EPILEPTICS, and HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED. The existing provision for the education of blind and deaf children is regulated by an Act of Parliament passed in 1893, and of mentally defective, physically defective, and epileptic children by an Act of 1899. The Board of Education (*q.v.*) have made special regulations relating to the schools for these children, which are known as "special schools." In 1903 a Union was formed to bring

together those concerned with these particular schools. The members of the National Special Schools Union are teachers and nurses directly engaged in teaching and care of children in special schools, and associates are persons interested in the working of them. A conference is organised not less than once in every two years, and provision is made for the official representation of educational authorities or associations interested in the subject.

Spectacle Frame-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Spectacles for School Children.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES, MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, SCHOOL CLINICS and SCHOOL DOCTORS. The first report of the Chief Medical Officer to the Board of Education (*q.v.*) (for the year 1908) confirms what had for a long time been suspected, that a considerable number of children in the elementary schools suffer from defective vision. Of the children examined who were about to leave school, it was found that "approximately 10 per cent.—rather more in the case of the girls and rather less in the case of the boys—were in need of careful examination by an ophthalmic surgeon, their vision being what is technically expressed as $\frac{6}{18}$ or worse." This may probably be taken also as approximately the number of school children at all ages needing treatment for this defect. The percentage is lowest in rural schools and highest in higher grade schools. Attention is also drawn to the fact that during the examination many children were found to be wearing unsuitable glasses.

The Board of Education considered proposals from local education authorities (*q.v.*) to provide spectacles free of charge to elementary school children. They have, however, only sanctioned

such a scheme if satisfied that every effort has been made to obtain the provision of the spectacles by the child's parents or by voluntary associations. In the year 1908-9 twenty-one authorities received sanction for the provision of spectacles at an estimated expenditure of about £400 and an average cost of 2s. to 3s. 6d. per pair. In some cases, parents are encouraged to contribute to the cost when able to do so.

The Association for the Supply of Spectacles in London Elementary Schools (founded in 1906 by Miss S. Lawrence, a co-opted member of the L.C.C. and others) has done a very valuable work in supplying spectacles at wholesale prices, and in certain cases making grants in aid of the cost. Spherical lenses can now be obtained for 1s. 9d., and cylindrical lenses for 2s. 9d., 3s. 9d., or 4s. 6d.

In Bradford the price is 1s. 5d. for sphericals, 2s. for cylinders, and 2s. 9d. for sphero-cylinders.

"Standing At."—When any persons or societies have to pay part of the cost of anything to which others contribute, they are said to "stand at" the amount for which they are responsible. For instance, if a Society promises to contribute 10s. a week to the sum of 30s. a week necessary to send a person to a convalescent home, that Society is said to "stand at" 10s. a week in the "case" of that person. Again, if a family rent a house and occupy only a portion of it, subletting the remainder to another family, the first family is said to "stand at" the difference between the whole rent and the amount paid by the second family. Thus a man who rented a house at £1 per week, and sub-let half of the house at 8s. per week, would "stand at" 12s. per week for the house.

Standing Emigration Committee.—(See COLONISATION.)

State Children's Association.—In 1846 a Departmental Committee of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) reported upon the condition of Poor Law schools (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW). As a result, the Association was formed to keep its recommendations before the public until they were carried into effect. The main principle for which the Association has contended is that a home and not an institution is the right place in which to rear every child, more especially those children whose inheritance and early environment predispose them to pauperism. Its primary object has been to secure the removal of the children from the workhouse and to place them in families or in small groups, where they may be in daily touch with the interests and activities of social life, instead of collecting them together in large barrack schools. In spite of the more general adoption of the boarding-out (*q.v.*) system, there are still large numbers of children whose circumstances require the continuation of the activities of the Association. Among its practical proposals is the suggestion that each board of guardians should appoint a children's committee, some of whom should be women whose business it would be to know with accuracy the circumstances and characteristics of each child in their care. It also urges that special homes should be provided for the children of parents who are frequently in and out (see INS AND OUTS) of the workhouse, since they constitute a separate problem which cannot be solved by the ordinary machinery for dealing with children in the permanent care of the guardians. The Association not only opposes barrack schools, but also grouped cottage homes or village communities, since the life is unnatural, and deprives the children of contact with the outer world. It advocates the

boarding-out system and scattered homes, and in the case of suitable children, their emigration to Canada (see COLONISATION).

The Association has also advocated the extension of the powers of the State over neglected children, and has accordingly assisted to make more widely known the provisions of the Probation of Offenders Act (see PROBATION OFFICERS). The Association issues a series of useful leaflets explanatory of the various matters with which it is concerned, and the action which has been taken in carrying out the reforms of which it is an advocate.

Station.—This is the name commonly used by persons in receipt of outdoor relief (*q.v.*) to denote the building at which the relief is given.

Stereotyping.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Still-born Children.—(See NOTIFICATION OF BIRTHS and REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS.) Still-born children are not registered as being born, and no registrar's death certificate for their burial is required; but no person, who has control over or ordinarily buries bodies in a burial ground, shall allow a still-born child to be buried there unless :—

(1) There is given to him a written certificate from a medical practitioner that the child was not born alive, and that he has attended the birth or examined the body; or

(2) A declaration by a person, who, if the child had been born alive, would have had to give formal information concerning the birth, to the effect that no medical practitioner was present at the birth, or that his certificate cannot be obtained, and that the child was *not born alive*; or unless

(3) After an inquest an order of the coroner has been given. (See DEAD, CARE OF THE.)

Strawberry Pickers.—(See HOP AND FRUIT PICKING.)

Street Betting.—(See also BETTING.) Street betting may briefly be described as the betting of the poorer classes. Other betting is transacted at the race-courses and betting clubs, or by the assistance of the Post Office at the bookmakers' offices. The latter, when done *upon credit*, is not yet illegal; but a good deal of it is effected by small remittances in closed postal letters. Since the passing of the Street Betting Act in 1906 a considerable portion of what was formerly street betting has been added to the volume of cash postal betting, the Post Office having made no serious attempt to prevent the growth of the custom, pleading want of power, or the impropriety of opening closed letters, and private communications. It is shown, however, by the increased number of magisterial convictions of street bookmakers and the heavier fines imposed as compared with those which used to be inflicted under bye-laws passed by local bodies, that the Act in question is an extremely useful one. In addition to the main purpose for which it was passed, it has had considerable effect upon athletic sports grounds, which are included in its action by a special section enabling the police to treat bookmakers in such areas in the same way as if they were operating in the streets, provided that the sports grounds are protected from bookmakers by placards at their entrances stating that betting is not permitted. It too frequently happens, however, that the authorities of the grounds, fearful of reduced "gate" takings, should betting be prosecuted, omit to exhibit the necessary placards. In that case they are probably themselves liable as proprietors or occupiers of a "place" illegally used for betting. The Act in ques-

tion is 6 Edw. VII, ch. 43, and can be obtained of the King's printers for 1½d.

Street-Trading by Children.—(See BOY LABOUR and CHILD LABOUR.)

Student Teachers.—(See also BURSARS and PUPIL TEACHERS.) One of three means of entering the teaching profession in elementary schools is the student teachership. A bursar (*q.v.*) may be recognised as a student teacher at the close of his period of recognition as bursar. Other candidates must have been in receipt of continuous instruction for not less than three years at secondary schools (*q.v.*), be physically fit for the work of a teacher, and over seventeen years of age. All candidates must have passed the preliminary examination for the elementary school teacher's certificate, or some other examination accepted by the Board of Education (*q.v.*), as a qualification for entrance to a training college. The main principle of the system is that whole time education in secondary schools should be continued until the age of 17 or 18, and that any attempt to gain practical experience in elementary schools should be postponed until the intending teacher has reached that age and passed an examination which may be regarded as satisfactory evidence of the completion of a secondary school education. The intending teacher may either pass direct to a training college and obtain his first experience of practice in teaching there, or he may spend a year in working under supervision in the elementary schools before proceeding to the training college. A student teacher is not ordinarily recognised by the Board for more than one year, but occasionally the recognition may be continued for a second year.

Sunday Schools.—The Sunday school is the only religious influence which comes into the lives of a large number of the population.

Sunday schools owe their origin to two chief causes: one was the general neglect by the clergy to carry out the Rubric at the end of the Catechism in the Prayer Book, the other was a desire to give the children of the working classes some form of education (*q.v.*). The Adult School (*q.v.*) movement represents on a larger scale a similar combination of religious and secular instruction, as was found in the Sunday school at the end of the eighteenth century. The Sunday School Union was founded in 1803; and the Sunday School Institute was founded, in 1843, as an organisation for the schools of the Church of England, because the Catechism was excluded from the Union's catalogue. Nevertheless, many Church of England schools still make use of the older organisation, which is more efficient and more extensive in its work.

The Sunday school is now confined to religious education, but there is a general desire, both on the part of Churchmen and Non-conformists, to improve it. The former have effected considerable improvements by the introduction of the Method of the Catechism (see *Churchman's Guide*, ed. by A. Reynolds), by which the instruction is more definite and the proceedings more orderly than in the average Sunday school. Both have endeavoured to give effect to the truism that there can be no good teaching without good teachers. Kind hearts and much self-denial are valuable possessions, but it is gradually being recognised that their power can only be really effective when they are directed by instructed minds with the capacity to maintain discipline. Both the Union and the Institute have established training colleges, organised short courses, and sent out lecturers to train and equip the teachers for their work.

The teachers are frequently urged to know the children in their homes, and it is desirable for them to draw together with the social worker in co-operating in the welfare of the children. The social worker might well be asked to address meetings of Sunday school teachers upon subjects connected with the children. A common feature of the Sunday schools of all religious bodies is the school treat (*q.v.*), and it is much to be desired that they would unite in abolishing it.

Surgical Aid Society.—There are numerous channels through which to obtain surgical appliances. Generally they may be supplied through the hospital at which the patient has received treatment. In the Metropolis and its environs the Hospital Sunday (*q.v.*) and Hospital Saturday Funds (*q.v.*) provide this form of assistance. The Surgical Aid Society was formed in 1862 solely for the supply of surgical appliances to the poor. Societies previously existed for the supply of trusses and belts, but there was no institution through which could be obtained every description of surgical appliance. Originally the name was the "General Truss and Surgical Aid Society," but the first portion was omitted a little more than a year after the commencement of the work. An important development of the Society's work took place in 1883, when it was resolved to keep and fit the simpler appliances (such as trusses, stockings, etc.) on the premises, and to employ qualified male and female attendants for this work. The arrangement has been of considerable benefit and comfort to the patients, besides effecting economy in the administration of the Society's funds. In 1884 was established the first local branch of the Society, and its activities now extend to all parts of the kingdom. The help of the Society is obtained by means of

subscribers' letters upon the certificate of a surgeon. Some particulars as to the circumstances of the patient are registered as a preliminary to authorisation of the collection of subscriber's letters. Payments in cash are received in some cases in lieu of a portion of the "letters." Special cases are assisted through the system of "special grants," whereby in cases requiring costly appliances, for which, therefore, a large number of subscribers' letters of recommendation are needed, the committee frequently assist with a grant from the unused letters placed at their disposal by subscribers.

The Society does not co-operate with the Provident Surgical Appliance Society, which covers the same ground, and was founded, in 1872, on the principle that the patients should contribute some portion of the cost. The Surgical Aid Society, though not making it a definite rule to secure some contribution from the patient, does, in fact, do so in many instances. While the Provident Surgical Appliance Society is "always anxious to encourage this principle of self-help, the purely charitable nature of the Society is never forgotten," so that in practice it is difficult to draw a distinction between the two societies.

The social worker should be careful not to advise anyone in need of surgical aid to apply to these societies unless a good supply of letters is easily available, since where such "letters" are scarce, the difficulty and delay of collecting them is disheartening and demoralising to those who need the aid. The delay may aggravate the disease. The collecting may lead the applicants into begging habits. The system of issuing letters is similar to the voting charity system, and shares many of its defects (see CHARITY VOTING REFORM ASSOCIATION).

Surgical Instrument-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Sweated Industries.—(See also TRADE BOARDS and TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.) Precise determinations of sweated industries are impossible, because (1) every trade in which the workers are not either thoroughly skilled or well organised may become a sweated industry; (2) there is no trade in which all the workers are sweated, or all the employers sweaters.

Proofs of these statements are to be found in the report issued, in 1889, by a committee of the House of Lords, which took evidence as to the evil conditions prevailing in connection with home work; in the evidence given before the Parliamentary Committee on Home Work in 1907; and in the many publications which preceded and succeeded these reports. It was proved that there is a constant demand for workers who will give their time for less than subsistence wages. There is also a large and fortunately, increasing body of employers who find that, whatever the custom in the trade, the payment of fair wages is the most satisfactory basis on which to build up a business.

It has, however, been found possible to give precise definitions of sweating. The Parliamentary Committee in 1908 said that "sweating is understood to mean that work is paid for at a rate which, in the conditions under which many of the workers do it, yields to them an income which is quite insufficient to enable an adult person to obtain anything like proper food, clothing, and household accommodation."

The Home Work Committee also said that "very low rates of remuneration are by no means confined to home workers, but are not infrequently the lot of factory workers in the trades in which home

work is prevalent." The experience of the writer shows that sweating may also be prevalent in trades in which there are no home workers. Girls and women of full age and strength often work for 5s., 6s., or 7s. a week. The filling and packing of paper bags—an occupation necessarily confined to the factory or warehouse—may be just as badly paid as the making of paper bags, a trade often carried on in the home.

Although it is not true that sweating is confined to home work, it is true that among home workers we find the worst examples of the evil. The employer runs certain risks in giving out his work, and for those risks the worker pays the insurance. It is deducted from her wages. The employer is in some slight danger of losing his material, or having it spoiled by bad work or dirt. True, he gains, especially in crowded districts, because he does not have to provide a properly warmed and lighted factory (see FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN), subject to rigorous inspection or to pay premiums to insurance companies to cover his liabilities under the Workmen's Compensation Act (*q.v.*), but instead of balancing his gains and losses he too often reduces piece work rates. He may call in the services of a middlewoman, who is responsible to him for the safety of his materials, and to no one for the amount of wages paid. It is this system which has aroused the horror of thinking persons, and incited them to fresh endeavours to discover a remedy.

The out-worker may carry on her occupation in a workshop (see FACTORY OUT-WORKERS) or in her own home. If she is in a workshop owned possibly by a middleman, the premises will be subject to sanitary inspection, and her hours of work will be regulated by factory inspectors (*q.v.*). If she is in

her own home, the only part of factory law which applies to her is the Particulars Clause (*q.v.*). The occupier of the factory who is giving out the work is obliged to publish particulars of the rate of wages applicable to the work to be done, and also particulars of the work to which that rate is to be applied. This clause has been of considerable benefit to the workers, but there is reason to believe that its provisions are not always strictly adhered to. It cannot be too strongly impressed upon social workers that any complaints with regard to its evasion are immediately attended to if sent to the Home Office (*q.v.*).

The trades which are carried on in domestic workshops (see DOMESTIC FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS) and in the homes of the workers are dealt with in an article on the Sweated Industries' Exhibition (*q.v.*). They consist very largely of sewing, because that is the trade to which every untrained woman turns when unexpected circumstances necessitate that she should earn her own living. For one of these sewing trades, wholesale tailoring, a Trades Board has been established (see TRADE BOARDS), but there are many other sewing trades in which the rates of remuneration are less satisfactory. In well-equipped factories there are sewing machines driven by power. Some of them will sew several rows of stitching at once, and turn out a completely made blouse in ten or fifteen minutes five or six times as quickly as on a hand machine. The home worker, with her rickety, old-fashioned machine, cannot hope to rival this record, but the power machine sets the standard of her remuneration. She must turn out her work with the same precision and for the same pay as the woman who has the advantage of being able to work five times as quickly. The cheapness of

ready-made mantles, costumes, and blouses is not necessarily due to sweating. In an increasing number of cases it is due to improvements in machinery.

There is, however, a very large number of women who could not possibly work in a power factory, to whom home work, even at very much reduced rates, is preferable to the maimed hands and arms which would assuredly follow if a nervous, unaccustomed worker attempted to deal with these high-speed machines. It is from these workers that the manufacturer and the middleman find their outdoor machinists. Instances of complete costumes—skirts and coats—made for 1s. 3d. each, of shirts for 7d. and 8d. a dozen, and blouses for 1s. 6d. a dozen—were given before the Home Work Committee.

It is not only the home machinist who is sweated. As she competes with power-driven machines, so the hand worker must compete with the machinist. Needlework takes a much longer time to do, but the fact is scarcely recognised in the rates of pay. There is, however, a large demand for high-class hand work, and to meet this demand the wholesale drapers have been obliged to go to Switzerland, to Teneriffe, to Japan, and to Ireland, although there is still a considerable amount of hand work done in London. Recent investigations have shown that the sweated workers in large towns are refusing to allow their meagre pay to be further reduced, and the sweating agitation has had at any rate this effect, that the women who can meet and talk together, helped and inspired by settlement workers (see SETTLEMENTS), refuse now to accept a wage which works out at less than a 1d. an hour. Consequently in towns it is unlikely that the lowest rate of wages paid to unskilled workers has gone down.

Unfortunately, this cannot be said of some country districts. For instance, Miss Irwin, in her report on home work in Ireland, which was published in December, 1909, and confirmed in April, 1910, in a report issued by the Belfast Medical Officer of Health, says: "The earnings of the workers do not exceed 1d. an hour, and with steady work would bring them only about 7s. a week. In some cases they are even less than that, and this for work involving care and sometimes a fair amount of skill." Hand-sewn underclothing is made in the country districts around Belfast, because it cannot be done at the price in London—bad as City prices are. One woman sews twelve tucks and ten short rows of feather-stitching, sets in one piece of insertion, puts on neckband, makes and puts in sleeves, makes and sews band, sews two long side seams and hems skirt, putting in four gores. It takes her nearly a day of very hard sewing to complete one of these chemises, and she gets 5d. for the sight-destroying work. Handkerchief embroidery cannot be called unskilled work, and yet Miss Irwin found many women whose rates of remuneration were less than 1d. an hour. One who embroidered elaborate sprays in each corner received 1s. 6d. for a dozen handkerchiefs; and on another class of handkerchief she sewed 912 French dots for 3½d. Another very highly skilled worker received 2s. for embroidering a parasol with finely coloured silks. It took her three days' steady work to complete the article. Nightdress bags are hand embroidered for 1s. 6d. a dozen, and it takes nearly four days to sew that dozen, working from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m.

The price paid for this hand-work bears very little relation to the price ultimately paid in the shops for the finished article. Four

elaborate hand-embroidered sprays in each corner certainly add more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. to the value of a handkerchief, and an "elaborately embroidered parasol" is sold retail for far more than 2s. over and above the price paid for one which is not so adorned. It seems to be the case that the work which is most badly sweated is sold in West End shops to customers who can and often do pay fair prices; it is not sold to those to whom cheapness is a consideration. It is made as a luxury for the rich and not as a necessity for the poor.

The evidence given before the Home Work Committee emphasised the fact that there is considerable difference in the rates paid by employers in the same trade. Miss MacArthur told the Home Work Committee that "on one side of a street 14s. was earnable, and on the other 7s. 6d. for the same work." It was because the committee were trying to find some method of bringing the bad employers up to the level of the good that they proposed that there should be legislation with regard to the rates of payment made to home workers who are employed in the production or preparation of articles for sale by other persons.

Sweated Industries' Exhibition.—No complete list of trades in which sweating is prevalent has been drawn up, but when in May, 1906, the *Daily News* organised a Sweated Industries' Exhibition in the Queen's Hall, London, 261 articles were exhibited, and very few of these were duplicates. It may, therefore, be useful to enumerate, in as few words as possible, some of the trades dealt with at that exhibition, and state briefly what changes have occurred in the four following years.

Artificial flower making is a skilled trade, and the payments made for the work necessarily vary

according to skill. One worker at the exhibition was paid 7d. a gross for violets and 3d. a gross for buttercups. She paid 6d. weekly for paste, and earned about 10s. weekly by working fourteen hours a day. A woman was paid $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. for making a confirmation wreath for export. In 1908 an inquiry into the condition of the artificial flower makers of Paris showed that high-class flower makers there earned from 5 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ francs a day, and other workers from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 francs.

The export trade from France in artificial flowers is about a million pounds per annum, and probably the fact that the best work is supposed to come from Paris militates against the home worker here.

Box making is a trade which increases every year, because the shoemaker and the draper are finding that it pays to send out their goods neatly packed. Because, however, the boxes are made to be sold to the wholesale houses, and the retail consumer only pays for them indirectly, the price must be kept down to its very lowest limit, and the worker suffers. Box making falls to the lot of the very poor, and there is no machine which will work so cheaply as human hands. In 1906 the rates paid were 2d. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gross for match-boxes, 1s. $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per gross for patent medicine boxes, 1s. to 1s. 4d. per gross for soap and night light boxes, and the money earned each day of twelve or thirteen hours varied from 8d. to 1s. 4d., according to the skill of the worker. There is no reason to believe that rates have fallen in the last four years, and the Paper-box Trade Board (*q.v.*), which is already at work, has fixed the minimum rate at $2\frac{3}{4}$ d. an hour.

Bead-workers appear to earn about 5s. or 6s. weekly, although, again, this cannot be called a "necessary," and must be classed

as a luxury. For beading ladies' shoes, 1s. 7d. to 2s. 6d. per dozen pairs is paid. For beading ornaments, 2½d. to 6½d. per dozen is paid according to size. The work has been rather in demand lately, and prices have gone up.

The best brushes are still made by hand. They are given out in dozens, ready bored, and the worker is supplied with fibre or bristles. The rates paid to the worker at the exhibition were 6½d. per 1,000 holes, and it took her over four hours to do a thousand. Here, again, payment certainly has since the exhibition slightly improved, but one can still meet with workers who are paid at the old rate.

The button-carders and hook-and-eye-carders of Birmingham have an unenviable reputation for accepting very low rates of pay. The average earnings of fifty-six women, some of whom worked very hard, were 3s. 3½d. per week. These are what may be called children's trades, the work being so simple, that youngsters of five years of age are pressed into the service during the hours when they are not under the care of the education authorities (see CHILD LABOUR). Some of the work is done by machinery, but the human machine is cheaper.

Chain making is dealt with under the head of Trade Boards (*q.v.*).

The making of clay pipes and cigarette holders is—said Mr. Chiozza Money in the Exhibition catalogue—an uncommon home industry. Holders are made for 8d. to 1s. per gross, and retailed for ¼d. or ½d. each. It takes a shillings-worth of clay to make six gross of cigarette holders; and for this and for her press, worth 25s. to 30s., the worker pays.

Coffin tassels are made for 6d. per gross, if plain. When netted, they are made for from 1s. per gross to 1s. 6d. By working very

hard, the worker can manage to earn 7s. 6d. a week.

Buttonhole making is undoubtedly a sweated trade, but the price paid varies so much with the class of work, that it is almost impossible to give rates. The big buttonholes in a man's overcoat are paid for at the rate of 1d. each; the buttonholes in shirts, collars, and cuffs are paid for at the rate of 1s. 6d. per gross. Machines do the work on cheap materials, although buttonholing by hand is still preferred for better class work.

Ball-covering—that is, the covering of tennis balls with cloth, and of racquet balls with leather—is a trade which has distinctly improved in direct consequence of the agitation against sweating. The prices paid are so various, that it is almost impossible to deal with them here, but it is stated that within the last four years piece work rates have gone up nearly 25 per cent.

Fur-pulling was too dangerous a trade to continue in the homes of the home workers, and is now done in Belgium, but fur-sewing is still carried on in the rooms in which people eat and sleep, although probably to a less extent than formerly, because of the inspection of outworkers by the sanitary authorities. A woman mentioned in the Exhibition records received 1s. for seven hours' work, and complained bitterly of the effect of eating and sleeping in a room where hairs were over everything, and "you couldn't even have a cup of tea without them getting in it."

Dolls' heads are made for 6d. a dozen, dolls' arms for 1s. a gross, and dolls' bodies 3s. per gross. The work is almost too cheap for London, and a good many dolls are imported from Germany.

Tie-makers evidently earned less in 1908 than they did in 1906. The price fell in many warehouses 1d. a dozen, that is, from 6d. to 5d. A

quick worker can probably make about 5d. an hour on the best class of work, but sometimes tie-makers have to sew the commoner class of tie, which only brings in 1½d., 2d., or 3d. an hour.

Sack-sewing, that is the re-making of old sacks and the making of new ones, seems to be a trade largely turned to by the unskilled wives of unskilled labourers. It is very badly paid. Miss Irwin said, in 1906, that in Glasgow the ordinary earnings of the women ranged from 5s. to 8s. a week. London sack makers, investigated in 1908, made 1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d. a day.

Glove making was mentioned in the Exhibition report, but new information is now available. The price paid in some cases is 3s. 3d. a dozen pairs, and six pairs can be made in a day. The earnings seem to average 10s. a week. This is necessarily a skilled trade.

Waistcoat making is a trade which may be either very much sweated or exceedingly well paid. Some women earn £1 16s. a week, while others earn less than 5s. The first Day Trade School for Girls in England, opened in 1904, taught waistcoat making, and now there are so many applications from employers for girls leaving the school, that the demand cannot be met.

Tailoring.—(See TRADE BOARDS AND TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Taxi-cab Drivers.—(See CAB-DRIVERS.)

Teachers, Assistance for.—(See CHURCH SCHOOLMASTERS' AND MISTRESSES' BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION AND NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS.)

Teachers' Pensions.—By an Act of Parliament, passed in 1898, the State authorised a system of pensions for teachers, which, however, applies only to certificated teachers. In consequence, a large number of teachers, who have done long and honourable service, especially in

connection with Church schools, have been left in distressing circumstances, although some provision is made for them by the Church Schoolmasters' and Schoolmistresses' Benevolent Institution (*q.v.*). By the Act of 1898 a teacher's certificate expires at the age of sixty-five unless the Board of Education (*q.v.*), on account of special fitness, allow his service to continue for a further limited time. Of course, the Act applies equally to women as to men teachers. The Act applies to teachers employed in public elementary schools (*q.v.*) or training colleges, to teachers of central classes of pupil teachers (*q.v.*) or in certified reformatory and industrial schools (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS). Teachers of central classes for the instruction of scholars on the registers of public elementary schools in any subject which, under the Education Code, may be taught off the school premises, may also avail themselves of the Act. The contributions of the teachers are made by means of a deduction from the annual grant payable by the Board of Education to the authorities of the school or college in which the teacher is engaged. The details of the amount of contribution and method of assessment are contained in the rules made under the Act, and particulars may be obtained from the Secretary of the Board of Education. Under the scheme, a disablement allowance may be made to a teacher who has become permanently incapable owing to infirmity of mind or body, provided that it does not arise through his own fault, or, in the case of a woman, she has not been married since her last employment. The allowance is subject to periodical reconsideration, and may be withdrawn if found to be no longer necessary. The national scheme has been found to be inadequate, and is supplemented by the local

education authorities (*q.v.*). The National Union of Teachers (*q.v.*) also has a scheme of pensions and assistance for teachers in time of need.

Teachers, Training of.—(See also **TEACHERS, UNCERTIFICATED.**) The preliminary course of training for the work of a teacher may be undertaken either as bursar (*q.v.*), pupil teacher (*q.v.*), or student teacher (*q.v.*); but though they form the majority who enter the training colleges, there are others who are entitled to join them. The training colleges are of two kinds—residential and day. Many people hold the opinion that the former have the greater educational value. Nearly all have been established by the Church of England upon a definite religious basis, though there is entire liberty to all who are admitted to take part or not, as they please, in the religious observances. Although the admission under political pressure of this possibly non-sympathetic element may have done something to lessen the value of the common life in residence together, there nevertheless remain greater opportunities for *esprit de corps*, with its effects upon the individual character, than there are in the day training colleges. The majority of the students in the training college enter for a two years' course. They must be over eighteen years of age on August 1st in the year of examination, and must have passed one of the qualifying examinations, of which the most familiar are the Oxford and Cambridge Senior Locals. The full details are given in the regulations for training of teachers for elementary schools (*q.v.*), issued by the Board of Education (*q.v.*). If the candidates have been for three years immediately preceding their admission at a secondary school (*q.v.*), they may be admitted at the age of seventeen. The second class of student consists

of university graduates and others who have attained an approved standard of general education, and are admitted for a one year's course, which is devoted mainly to professional training. Certificated teachers who have not previously been trained in a college are also admitted for a year's course, in order to improve their practical skill by some study of the theory of education. Under special conditions, students of exceptional promise are admitted to certain colleges for a three year's course, comprising academical study, leading to a degree as well as professional training. The course in the college has two objects, namely, to extend the general education of the students and to give them professional training for their work as teachers. The relative importance of each must necessarily depend upon the circumstances of the student. The Board of Education publish each year a list of all training college students who have satisfactorily completed their period of training and have become eligible for recognition as certificated teachers.

A separate set of regulations is issued by the Board as to the training of teachers in domestic subjects. In an appendix to the regulations is a list of the training schools recognised by the Board. Students must not be less than eighteen years of age, and must satisfy the authorities of the training school as to their physical capacity before being admitted to a course of training. A student must possess sufficient preliminary education to take advantage of the instruction which leads up to the grant of diplomas in cookery, laundry work, and housewifery. (See **DOMESTIC ECONOMY.**)

Teachers, Uncertificated.—(See also **TEACHERS, TRAINING OF.**) Schedule 1 of the Elementary School Code contains the particulars in regard to uncertificated

teachers. A candidate for recognition as an uncertificated teacher must produce a satisfactory medical certificate in a form approved by the Board of Education (*q.v.*) and must possess one of the following qualifications. He or she must either (1) have passed the King's Scholarship Examination or the preliminary examination for the Elementary School Teacher's Certificate held by the Board, or have qualifications which are substantially equivalent; or (2) be over twenty-one years of age, have served for not less than five years in a Poor Law school, be certified in the efficiency grade, and be favourably reported on by an inspector; or (3) have passed the examination for appointment as Army schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or hold the Army Acting Schoolmaster's Certificate, be recommended by the War Office, and be favourably reported on by an inspector; or (4) be over eighteen years of age, and have passed one of a number of examinations, including the London Matriculation and its equivalents, provided that where success in specific subjects is required, it must be obtained within two years and six months of the first examination and from the same examining body. Persons who have passed the examination for the elementary or higher certificate of the National Froebel Union may be recognised as uncertificated teachers in infants' schools or divisions, or in schools for blind or deaf children. A person who has been a pupil teacher will not be recognised as an uncertificated teacher until the termination of the period fixed for his recognition as a pupil teacher (*q.v.*). A person who has been a bursar (*q.v.*) will not be recognised by the Board as an uncertificated teacher even if he is above the age of eighteen and has passed an examination qualifying for recognition as an uncertificated teacher,

unless he has either been for at least a year in a training college or been employed for a year as a student teacher. If the proposals to establish nursery schools (*q.v.*) be generally approved, it would seem that they would provide further opportunities for the employment of teachers without the complete scholastic attainments and training.

Technical Education.—(See also TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS.) The extension and origination of various forms of technical education was one of the chief features of educational development during the closing years of the nineteenth century. It is obviously impossible to make any comprehensive survey of the numerous subjects in which instruction is given in the technical schools, schools of art (*q.v.*), and continuation schools (*q.v.*), under the regulations of the Board of Education (*q.v.*). A volume containing only the syllabuses is issued annually, and those relating to subjects in which the Board holds examinations cover more than 200 pages. In addition there is a number of subjects taught in the schools upon which suggestions are given by the Board, but they are not recognised by official examinations. They include various courses in rural science (see AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION) and technology and domestic courses (see DOMESTIC ECONOMY). The fact that the Board does not hold an examination does not, of course, preclude local authorities from making arrangements for that purpose, according to the needs of their respective areas. In fact, in the North of England in particular the local authorities have recognised that there is much waste of energy owing to the haphazard manner in which the students engage in their work, and have accordingly arranged organised courses. A special report (*Educational Pamphlet*, No. 19) has been

issued by the Board on the subject, and from it may be taken an explanation of the term "organised course." "When a student enters evening classes at a technical school, it is often found (1) that he has not had that complete preliminary training which is necessary if he is to understand and profit fully by instruction in technological subjects; and (2) that he does not arrange, unaided, that his continued study of technological subjects shall be accompanied by the acquisition of a gradually rising level of necessary knowledge of mathematics, science, and drawing. Organised courses have been devised to meet these defects. The whole of the student's time at school—fixed at a certain number of hours per week—is treated as the unit of organisation, and schemes of work are arranged on this basis, first for preliminary courses, technical and commercial, and afterwards for higher courses, specially adapted to the needs of different industries and different branches of commercial work. Though the schemes may for convenience be arranged in classes and subjects, yet it is understood that every student pays for the course, enters for the course, attends the course, and passes from one year of the course to another. In short, the course corresponds closely with the 'form' of a secondary school; it (and not the subject or class) is the unit upon which the organisation of the school is based."

Developments of this character have necessitated modifications in the regulations of the Board of Education. The underlying assumptions upon which those regulations are based are derived from a state of affairs which is rapidly passing out of existence. The co-operation between the employers of labour and educational authorities, by which technical education in con-

tinuation schools is not relegated to the evening, but arranged for a specific purpose in the daytime, and the extension of other forms of education under the auspices of such movements as the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*), rather than the concentration on the provision of instruction with a definitely vocational basis, are among the important developments which must be taken into account in the official regulations dealing with technical and advanced education in all its branches. But in the meanwhile it may be well to summarise briefly the regulations of the Board for grants to technical schools, schools of art, and other forms of provision of further education in force from August, 1910, to July, 1911, and continued through the following year.

In the conditions as to the making of State grants to technical schools, it is required that at least 25 per cent. of the expenditure of the school or group of schools under one control should be met from sources other than the Board's grants. Arrangements as to the payment or non-payment of fees must be submitted for the Board's approval. The teachers must, as a rule, be paid by fixed salaries. Provision must be made for the supervision of the teaching staff as regards organisation, registration, the advice given to students, and the co-ordination of the subjects taught. The curriculum of each school must be suitable to the circumstances of the locality, and must be approved by the Board. The scale and conditions of grant by the Board are arranged under six heads: (1) Literary and commercial; (2) art; (3) manual instruction in wood, metal, and other materials; (4) science; (5) home occupations and industries; (6) physical training.

Technical Institutions.—The regulations of the Board of Education

(*q.v.*) in reference to technical education (*q.v.*) set forth that organised courses of instruction in day classes, including advanced instruction in science or in science and art, given with the aid of a staff and equipment adequate for the purpose, may be recognised as "technical instruction courses," and grants may be made to institutions, including universities and university colleges (*q.v.*) in respect of such courses. Provision must be made for at least a two years' systematic course in science or in science and art, either alone or in conjunction with subjects of general, commercial, manual, or technological instruction. No student may be admitted to the course unless either (1) he has been educated for at least three years, subsequent to the age of twelve, in a school or schools on the list of secondary schools (*q.v.*) recognised by the Board of Education as efficient, or (2) he is over sixteen years of age, and is qualified from his general education to profit by a course of advanced instruction. The rate of grant will be determined in each case by the Board, and will depend upon the time allotted to instruction in science and in art, upon the cost of necessary equipment, upon the character and efficiency of the instruction as a whole, of the manner in which the students have benefited by it, and its suitability to the special circumstances of the locality. The great majority of courses of instruction in technical institutions are arranged for training in some branch of engineering—mechanical, electrical, civil, structural, sanitary and mining—but other technological branches of study included are architecture, carriage building, chemical trades, metallurgy, textile industries, leather manufacture, boot trades, technical optics, photography, agriculture, and horticulture. Where the organisation

of a course permits, proposals may be made for students other than those in full time attendance—to take part-time courses, including certain subjects only of the complete course. The Board must be satisfied that the presence of part-time students does not interfere with the progress of full time students, and as regards each individual part-time student, that it is not necessary for him to take the full course, and that the subjects selected for him are suitable. In special cases grants may be paid in respect of instruction of students in day technical classes, whether detached classes for advanced work or grouped classes, affording organised instruction in related subjects adapted to the technical requirements of the students. The establishment of these day technical classes seems likely to be a valuable supplement to the revival of the apprenticeship system. For boys and girls who have completed a course in the public elementary schools (*q.v.*), they combine a course of practical technical instruction, specially adapted to their proposed employment, for a couple of years, with a continuance of their general education. Under this heading may be classed Trade Schools, both for boys and girls; Domestic Economy (*q.v.*) Schools for Girls; Training Ships; Technical Schools for the Blind (*q.v.*), Deaf and Dumb (*q.v.*), etc.

Teeth of School Children.—(See also CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES, MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, SCHOOL CLINICS and SCHOOL DOCTORS.) The condition of the teeth of elementary school children has been found to be highly unsatisfactory. It is estimated that from 20 to 40 per cent. of all school children examined, excluding children in the babies' classes, have four or more decayed teeth. In many instances, the teeth of children from very poor districts are

found to be slightly better than those from schools in rather better-class districts. The above figures represent the results of what was probably, as a rule, a necessarily hurried examination. The report of the Cambridge Borough Authority, where the examination is made by a dentist, suggests that matters are even worse. Of an examination of 2,946 children, it is said: "The percentage of children with perfectly sound teeth, which in the third and fourth years stood at a little over 11 per cent., had fallen by the sixth and seventh years to 2, and by the tenth and eleventh to zero. . . . At thirteen and fourteen years, half the children have each nine or more permanent teeth carious."

It would appear that in the majority of cases, parents are quite indifferent to the condition of their children's teeth. It is very rare to find a case in which any conservative dentistry has been used.

The prevalence of dental caries is ascribed partly to injudicious feeding, especially in the earlier years of childhood, and partly to the neglect of keeping the teeth clean. The former evil may, it is hoped, be corrected, by the work of health visitors (*q.v.*), in connection with the prevention of infant mortality (*q.v.*), the latter by instruction at school in the use of the tooth-brush, and impressing its necessity on the parent at the medical examination.

Defective teeth, and the inflammation of the roots of the teeth thereby set up in many instances, are indirectly productive of a number of evil results, such as debility, anæmia, dyspepsia, and enlarged glands.

Telegraph Messengers.—(See BOY LABOUR and TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Telephone Girls.—(See CIVIL SERVICE FOR FEMALES.)

Temperance Societies.—The temperance movement of the nineteenth century in England has met with remarkable success. It has changed the attitude toward drunkenness of a large proportion of the population. It has shown that intemperance with all the evils that accompany it is one of the most pressing social problems. It has changed the habits of many thousands who have learned that the consumption of alcohol is a necessity for few if any of those who indulge in it. This change is due in a very large measure to the activity of temperance societies. So many of these exist, and their aims and methods are so varied, that it is impossible within the limits of this book to give a detailed account of any. But a short summary of the most important may be of use to the social worker. The Church of England Temperance Society, with an income of more than £50,000, the Catholic Total Abstinence League of the Cross, and similar societies connected with religious bodies have carried on most successful work. The Independent Order of Good Templars, the Order of the Sons of Temperance, the Sons of the Phoenix and the United Order of Rechabites are the leading friendly societies (*q.v.*) founded on temperance principles. Besides, there are many other societies engaged in similar work, of which the following are the most important: The National Institutions for Inebriates establishes reformatories for the reception of habitual inebriates (see INEBRIATE REFORMATORIES); the United Kingdom Alliance aims at the legislative suppression of the liquor traffic; the Central Association for Stopping the Sale of Intoxicating Liquors on Sunday explains its aim in its title; the United Kingdom Band of Hope Union, with a membership of over 2,000,000, promotes total abstinence

among the young; the British Temperance League aims at general promotion of temperance; the National British Women's Temperance Association and the Women's Total Abstinence Union co-ordinate the work of women's temperance societies; the National Temperance League advocates total abstinence; the Royal Army Temperance Association and the Royal Navy Temperance Society carry on temperance work in the Army and Navy respectively.; the National United Temperance Council act as a centre for the promotion of temperance aims, especially the amendment of licensing laws (see DRUNKENNESS, LAW RELATING TO); the Young Abstiners' League devotes itself to temperance work among the sons and daughters of the upper and middle classes; the Central Public House Trust Association exists to eliminate private interest in the retail liquor trade and to give the control of the trade to limited companies; the True Temperance Society advocates the moderate use of alcohol and the improvement of public-houses (*q.v.*) on the lines of Continental cafés. Inebriates (see INEBRIETY) are cared for by the Reformation and After-Care Association for Inebriates; the Temperance Collegiate Association promotes systematic study of temperance questions; the National Temperance Federation aims at securing popular local option controlling the grant of liquor licences; the Temperance Legislation League advocates the strengthening and improved administration of licensing laws (see LICENCES TO SELL INTOXICATING LIQUORS); and the Society for the Study of Inebriety devotes itself to the scientific study of alcoholism. This brief summary shows how great and varied is the work that is done. It also seems to point to the possibility of overlapping and rivalry where

there should be co-operation and sympathy.

Tenant.—(See LANDLORD AND TENANT.)

Tenement Factories.—(See FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Tenement Houses.—(See BLOCK DWELLINGS.)

Tenters.—(See CHILD LABOUR II.)

Textile Factories.—(See FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Textile Trades, Children Employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR II.)

Theatres, Children Employed in.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Thrift and Thrift Teaching.—

Some knowledge of the thrift organisations of the country is useful to the social worker. These may be summarised thus: savings banks, life insurance societies, friendly societies (*q.v.*), co-operative societies (*q.v.*), building societies, and trade unions (*q.v.*).

It is not proposed to discuss co-operative and building societies in this article. Both are powerful aids to thrift.

SAVINGS BANKS.

Penny Banks are usually connected with some church, chapel, or other religious or philanthropic institution. It is best to deposit the funds of such banks in the Post Office Savings Bank. The latter will accept accounts of penny banks when the rules have been approved and authorised trustees appointed. Interest at 2½ per cent. is then guaranteed by the State. The Post Office will provide, free of cost, depositors' books and ledgers.

The rules should be simple. Deposits of 1d. at a time should be accepted. In some cases even farthings are received from the very young. The interest granted by the State may be apportioned as nearly as possible among the depositors, or used to pay for working expenses, or promotion of thrift work.

Collecting Savings Banks (q.v.) are a modification of penny banks. Collectors visit the homes of the depositors once a week and take their deposits, entering the amount on a card which is left with the depositor, a duplicate for the use of the bank being retained.

School Banks are established by many education authorities in the elementary schools (q.v.). They are formed on lines similar to the penny banks above-named. The teachers accept the children's pence, and bank them with the Post Office or other well-known bank, in the names of trustees.

It is never well to give any "bonus" or fictitiously high interest to depositors. Such a practice creates a false idea of the power of saving.

The Post Office Savings Bank above referred to has the guarantee of the State. Branches are to be found at almost any post office in the country. The system is well known. Sums of not less than 1s. at a time are received; $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest is allowed on every complete pound for each complete calendar month. Not more than £50 can be deposited by one person in each year, except for investment in Government Stock, nor can a maximum of more than £200 be received altogether. Stamp forms, each to contain 1s. or 4s. worth of stamps are provided for small depositors. These are accepted by the Post Office as cash when filled up. Dealings in Government stock and life insurance can be effected by depositors. The Post Office accepts accounts of friendly, co-operative, and building societies.

Trustee Savings Banks are regulated by Act of Parliament. Their work is similar to that of the Post Office. They are managed by trustees, who may take no remuneration for their services. They deposit their money with the

Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, and are supervised by the Trustee Savings Banks' Inspection Committee.

There are many savings banks established on a *commercial basis*. Without questioning the excellence of their management, those who make use of them must satisfy themselves of their financial stability.

LIFE INSURANCE.

The most popular form of saving money among the working classes is that of life insurance. This can be effected by "ordinary" insurance, "industrial" insurance, collecting friendly societies, and the Post Office.

Ordinary insurance is usually beyond the means of wage earners.

Industrial Insurance Companies and Collecting Friendly Societies obtain their business mainly through the agency of collectors, who make house-to-house visits. The premiums or contributions are arranged so that they can be paid weekly in multiples of a penny. The collectors having to be paid, the relative cost is higher than that of a Post Office (Government) or "Ordinary" insurance policy. For instance, an industrial company or collecting friendly society will grant a policy of from £16 to £16 3s. at death, starting at age twenty-one, for 2d. a week, or 8s. 8d. a year. The Post Office will charge only 6s. 5d. a year (payable in advance through the Savings Bank) for £16 at the same age.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

These may be divided into: (a) Dividing (sometimes called *ton-tine societies*, "sharing out," or "slate" clubs); and (b) *Permanent*. Both classes set out to provide a sum of money during times of sickness or accident, and they usually offer, in addition, a lump sum of money at death.

Dividing Societies return to the members a "share out" or dividend at the end of a stated period (generally every twelve months) after the sick pay has been liquidated. Death or burial money is usually raised by a levy on the members. The contributions bear no scientific relation to the sick pay allowed, and the likelihood of the continuance of the society from year to year rests largely on the chances of an accession of young members. Their support cannot be recommended as a satisfactory instrument of thrift.

The *Permanent Societies* may be classed as: Affiliated, Centralised, and Deposit.

Affiliated and Centralised Societies. The ordinary practice with these is to give, in sickness, full pay for 26 weeks; half-pay for the next 26 weeks, and quarter pay for the remainder of sickness. Sometimes the full pay extends to 52 weeks, and the half-pay for the remainder of sickness. Sometimes the quarter pay is discontinued when the sickness of a member has continued for two or three years. Full pay may be as low as 4s. or as high as 20s. a week, according to the contributions paid, and the half and quarter pay will vary accordingly. A sum of money is provided at a member's death, or at that of his wife (6½d. a week from age 20 will provide for 10s. for 26 weeks, 5s. for 26 weeks, 2s. 6d. for the remainder of illness, £12 at member's death, and £6 at death of his wife, if he be married). Additional benefits are sometimes allowed, such as a sum of money on the wife's confinement, when tools are lost by fire, when the member travels in search of work, and occasionally superannuation or old age pay is granted. The *Affiliated Societies*, as their name implies, are, in effect, "affiliations" of local benefit clubs, known as lodges, courts, or tents, each

self-contained and managed, but bound together by general rules, which include provision for help to the weaker in time of financial difficulty.

The *Centralised Societies* only differ from the above, in that the funds of each order are held by a central body, responsible to all the members.

The *Deposit Societies* have a constitution similar to the centralised societies. They differ in the method of apportionment of the benefits, which are effected by the money on deposit in the name of each member. "Holloway" societies are a variation of ordinary deposit societies. The deposits in this case are set aside for benefit in old age.

Among the largest and best known societies are:—

Affiliated: Independent Order of Oddfellows (Manchester Unity), Ancient Order of Foresters, Independent Order of Rechabites (Salford Unity), the Order of Sons of Temperance, and the Order of United Sisters (Suffolk Unity).

Centralised: Hearts of Oak Benefit Society, Rational Association Friendly Society and Church Benefit Society.

Deposit Society: National Deposit Friendly Society, Stroud and Mid-Gloucestershire Conservative Working Men's Benefit Society, and Tunbridge Wells, and South Eastern Counties Equitable Friendly Society.

Female and Juvenile Sections. Most of the friendly societies have sections for women, girls, and boys (the Order of United Sisters is for women only). The benefits in these sections are so arranged as to meet the modified needs of their respective members.

Registry of Friendly Societies (q.v.). Information regarding friendly societies can be obtained from the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, 28, Abingdon Street, London, S.W. This official can

also be applied to regarding the "valuation" of any Society. The valuation of a Society is the best test of its financial position.

Trade Unions (q.v.) are organisations of operatives for supporting the interests of labour. A certain number of them grant out-of-work and sickness allowances, as well as superannuation benefits. The funds for these are sometimes raised by "contributions" before the debt has been incurred, or by "levy" on the members to meet payments made.

THRIFT TEACHING.

The teaching of thrift in the abstract is naturally recognised in every school. The School Savings Bank is an application of the principles inculcated. Latterly, a movement is on foot still further to define such teaching. Many education authorities have recognised this need. The London County Council (*q.v.*) has adopted the following Thrift Syllabus for the use of the teachers in its schools:—

"Distinction between thrift and parsimony; examples of wasteful and economic expenditure; the dearness of cheap things; individual and collective saving; how the individual may save; simple investments; the Post Office Savings Bank; the stamp-form; economy of time; the value of method; what to do on leaving school; skilled and unskilled employments; apprenticeship; apprenticeship societies; wages in different classes of occupation—at first and afterwards; betting and gambling; the principles of compound interest; life insurance; types of policies; friendly societies; different types of insurance and friendly societies; how friendly societies are managed; valuations of friendly societies; trade unions as societies for the encouragement of thrift; juvenile friendly societies."

It is not implied that this syllabus in its entirety is suitable for all ages and for all scholars. It must be adapted to suit the particular Standard; it is a guide, however, to the main line of instruction. If no special time is set apart in the time-table of a school, this syllabus can be brought into use at hours allotted to dictation, composition, or arithmetic.

Methods of thrift may also be taught through other channels. Addresses on the subject may be delivered at guilds and clubs for young people, boys, and girls. Bands of Hope may also turn their attention to the same. Perhaps the best method is to make use of the lantern slide. The audiences may be encouraged to write essays, prizes or certificates being awarded to successful competitors.

Among the societies which have published pamphlets or periodical articles which will be useful may be named: The Girls' Friendly Society (*q.v.*), the Young Women's Christian Association (*q.v.*), the Church of England Temperance Society, the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), the Band of Hope Union, and the National Union of Women Workers (*q.v.*), whilst several of the leading friendly societies, the co-operative societies (*q.v.*), and the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*) have sets of lantern slides for illustration purposes.

Ticket-writing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Time Work of Children.—(See CHILD LABOUR.)

Tin-smithing.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Tobacco Trades.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Tontine Societies.—(See THRIFT.)

Town Councils.—(See BOROUGH COUNCILS.)

Town Planning.—(See also BUILDING BYE-LAWS, GARDEN CITIES, HOUSING ACTS, MUNICIPAL

DWELLINGS, MUNICIPAL HOUSING, NATIONAL HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING COUNCIL, OVERCROWDING, SMALL SLUMS, and WORKMEN'S NATIONAL HOUSING COUNCIL.) The control by public authorities and landowners of the orderly extension and development of towns and suburbs, and the laying-out of building estates in the interests of public health and welfare has been in practice in Continental countries—notably, Germany and Sweden—for the past thirty years, but only to a slight extent in this country. In 1906, however, a national deputation, organised by the National Housing and Town Planning Council, waited on the Prime Minister and the President of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) to urge that town planning powers should be given to municipalities in this country. Legislation was promised, and the Government passed the Housing and Town Planning Act, 1909, which is intended to secure by means of schemes prepared either by local authorities (*q.v.*) or landowners that land in the vicinity of towns shall be developed in such a way as to prevent the growth of new slum areas on the outskirts, and to secure a greater degree of public control over the laying-out of new housing areas in future (Secs. 54 to 67 and Schedules 3, 4, 5).

The local authorities who will administer the Act are, for London, the London County Council (*q.v.*); and, for the provinces, the various town councils, urban district councils (*q.v.*), and rural district councils (*q.v.*) (Sec. 65 (1)).

The Local Government Board may constitute a joint body to deal with land in the area of more than one local authority (Sec. 55 (3)).

How to Make a Town Plan. Before a local authority actually prepares a town planning scheme, it must satisfy the Local Govern-

ment Board that there is a *prima facie* case for making a scheme (Sec. 54 (2) and Schedule 5), and after making a formal application, must receive an authorisation from them to prepare one. A like authorisation is required to enable a local authority to adopt a scheme proposed by all or any of the owners of any land which may be the subject of a scheme. The time at which the application is made for authority to prepare a scheme is a very important matter, because no person will be entitled to compensation on account of any building erected on or contract made or other thing done with respect to and included in the scheme, except work done before date of the approval of the scheme for completing buildings begun or contracts entered into before the application was made (Sec. 58 (2)).

Schemes may be prepared by landowners themselves, and the Local Government Board have power to compel the local authority to adopt any scheme proposed by owners of land.

The Board's regulations provide for co-operation by means of conferences and otherwise at every stage, and the General Provisions under Section 55 give power to the responsible authority to make agreements with owners and of owners to make agreements with one another (Schedule 4 (13)).

The Local Government Board may, on any satisfactory representation, order a local authority to prepare or carry out a town planning scheme, and may enforce the same.

Section 54 (1) provides that a town planning scheme may be made for

(1) Any land which is in course of development, or

(2) Any land which appears likely to be used for building purposes.

(3) Any land likely to be used as or for the purpose of providing open spaces, roads, streets, parks, pleasure or recreation grounds.

(4) Any land likely to be used for the purpose of executing any work upon or under the land incidental to a town planning scheme, whether in the nature of a building work or not.

In Germany, the expression "likely to be used for building purposes" covers land likely to be so used during the next thirty years.

Any question as to whether any land in this country comes within the foregoing categories will be decided by the Local Government Board, whose decision will be final. The scheme need not, however, be exclusively confined to land of this character, for the effect of Section 54 (3) is to enable a town planning scheme to include pieces of land already built upon, or which are not likely to be used for building purposes, when by reason of their situation with respect to land which is likely to be used for building purposes they ought in the opinion of the Board to be so included. Provision may be made for the demolition or alteration of any building so far as may be necessary for carrying the scheme into effect.

Section 54 (1) provides that the object of a town plan is to secure "proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying out and use of the land and of any neighbouring lands."

These three expressions correspond to the requirements laid down by Dr. Stubben, the great German authority on town planning, who says that the first thing to be settled in a town plan is the position, direction, and width of the principal streets, and that this should be followed by a general indication of the mode of division of the land into sites, which must be so arranged with regard to each

other that the demands of "traffic, health, and beauty" may be complied with as fully as possible.

Sunlight, fresh air, and vegetation are now recognised as the basis of all sound *sanitary conditions*. An adequate supply of these can only be secured, in the first place, by limiting the number of buildings on the land; in the second place, by a proper distribution and arrangement of such buildings; and, in the third place, by establishing proper relations between such distribution of the buildings and the system of drainage, sewerage, and water supply.

"*Amenity*" may reasonably be held to cover the preservation, where at all practicable, of trees, hedges, and other natural features which add to the beauty of the surroundings, by effecting deviations in the street lines, or judicious arrangement of gardens and other open spaces, while it may also include the protection of residential districts as far as possible from smoke (see *SMOKE NUISANCE*), noise, ugliness, and other objectionable accompaniments of certain manufactures and other undertakings.

It should, of course, protect the owner of one estate from another owner who, for purposes of profit, might desire to utilize his land in such a way as to lessen the amenities of residence or unreasonably to disfigure the district or spoil the view.

"*Convenience*" mainly has regard to the streets and other means of communication between one part of a district and another, and would justify the local authorities in varying their width, direction, or construction where so required to meet the needs of pedestrians and vehicular traffic to and from surrounding districts.

The fourth Schedule mentions

streets, buildings, open spaces, private and public; the preservation of objects of historic interest or natural beauty; sewerage; drainage (*q.v.*); lighting; water supply (*q.v.*); right of way; obstructive buildings, and any works connected with the foregoing, as being within the scope of a town plan.

The most important power in this connection is that in Schedule 4 (2), which enables the Board to prescribe general provisions dealing with "buildings, structures, and erections"; while Schedule 5 (1) empowers the Board to make regulations for dealing with "the details to be specified in plans, including, wherever the circumstances so require, the regulation of the number of buildings which may be erected on each acre, and the height and character of those buildings."

Section 59 provides that compensation is not to be paid to any landowner in respect of such limitation of the intensive use of land for building purposes in the foregoing cases where the Local Government Board approve of the limitation as reasonable.

Special provisions in the town planning scheme may suspend, so far as necessary, for the proper carrying out of the scheme, any statutory enactments, bye-laws, regulations, or other provisions under whatever authority made which are in operation in the area included in the scheme.

This power is of great importance, since it will facilitate valuable economies in estate development, suspending bye-laws relating to width of road, character and method of road-making, construction of buildings, and other development expenses.

If a proper standard is taken, we may look for a great multiplication of the very interesting garden villages and suburbs (*q.v.*), of which

such excellent examples are to be found in Hampstead Garden Suburb, and at Bournville, Earswick, Port Sunlight, and the Woodlands colliery village.

Town Planning and Garden Cities Company.—(See GARDEN CITY AND TOWN PLANNING ASSOCIATION.)

Trade Boards.—(See also SWEATED INDUSTRIES.) Wages Boards—that is, committees consisting of workers and employers called together for the special purpose of fixing wages, piece-work rates, and conditions of labour—have been working well in Australia since 1896. In a somewhat different form they were also in existence here long before Mr. Churchill's Trade Boards Bill was thought of. In the iron trades, for instance, voluntary conciliation boards are an important part of trade union work. The Trade Boards Bill, which received the Royal Assent on October 20th, 1909, dealt, however, with underpaid workers unable to take care of themselves, and made trade boards compulsory in the four following trades:—

- (1) Ready-made and wholesale bespoke tailoring.
- (2) Cardboard and paper box making.
- (3) The finishing processes of machine-made lace.
- (4) Hammered, or dollied, or tommied chain-making.

The Boards are to be formed of representatives of employers and employed, who are to fix minimum rates of wages for time work, and may fix rates for piece-work. Boards may be formed in other trades where low wages prevail after Parliament has sanctioned the Provisional Orders constituting the Boards.

At the Census of 1901 there were 284,848 people employed in the tailoring trades, and it is reckoned that 250,000 people will be affected by the Tailoring Board's decisions. Paper box making is

carried on by 14,372 factory hands, and, in addition, by a considerable number of workshop and out-workers (see FACTORY OUT-WORKERS). In both these trades difficulty was experienced in constituting the Boards; and Miss MacArthur, the Hon. Lily Montagu, and Mr. Mallon are among those who have been appointed members of the Boards for the purpose of assisting the actual workers in the trade.

The Trade Boards Act differs from the Bill promoted by the Anti-Sweating League in many particulars, but the most serious has proved in practice to be the delay of six months after the fixing of the wage rate before the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) may issue an order making the rate obligatory. This led to a strike of chain-makers in Cradley Heath, for some of the manufacturers there seemed determined to work at high pressure and to accumulate great stocks during their six months' grace. The Chain-making Board was the first to get successfully to work, and it fixed a time rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. an hour, about twice as much as had been paid to the women previously.

Machine-made lace workers at Nottingham are to receive $2\frac{3}{4}$ d. an hour up to September 30th, 1912, and 3d. an hour after that date.

The Paper Box Trade Board has fixed the minimum rate of pay for workers at $2\frac{3}{4}$ d. an hour, to be increased in January, 1912, to 3d. an hour, and in 1913 to $3\frac{1}{4}$ d. an hour. All payments are fixed clear of deductions. The Government officials at the Board of Trade are labouring hard to make the Trade Boards thoroughly useful.

Trade Schools.—(See DOMESTIC ECONOMY and TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS.)

Trade Unions.—By a large section of the general public who only come into touch with the Trade Union movement through the medium of

the daily Press, these organisations are regarded solely as combinations of workmen whose object is to secure better conditions of labour by means of strikes. More recently owing to the interest attaching to the House of Lords decision on the Osborn case, the public have become aware of another side of trade union activity, namely, the subsidising of members of Parliament out of trade union funds. These two aspects of the work of the trade union movement will not concern us here. What it is desired to do in this article is to bring to light another, and to the general public little known, aspect of trade union activity, and yet one so important, that it is doubtful whether these organisations could ever have been built up without it.

The bond which has linked members of trade unions together, the spirit which has induced them to sacrifice individual advancement to the collective interest of the members of their trade, have been welded and strengthened by the practice of associated thrift (*q.v.*), the making of a common provision against life's contingencies. It is this feature of trade unionism which has given to trade unions a permanent character, and linked the members together in a bond which is not broken after the passing of a period of industrial strife.

The benefits which a trade union offers in return for the members' contributions are often as varied as those of friendly societies (*q.v.*), but as a general rule the trade union offers, in addition, provision against a contingency for which friendly societies do not provide, viz., unemployment (*q.v.*). Apart from the fact that the Friendly Societies' Act does not permit the registry of a friendly society having as one of its objects insurance against unemployment, except under a special

authority granted by the Treasury, there is a valid reason why friendly societies have not encroached upon the work of trade unions in the field of unemployment insurance. Members of friendly societies, except in agricultural districts, are, as a rule, drawn from a variety of occupations. The risks of unemployment vary so considerably in different trades, that associated provision could hardly be expected in a friendly society, unless an elaborate scale were drawn up with a different contribution for every kind of occupation. Moreover, the members of one trade have as a rule little acquaintance with the condition of employment in other trades. This fact would make it exceedingly difficult for the officers of a friendly society to assure themselves even that a member applying for unemployed pay was actually out of employment. It would be still more difficult for them to discover whether his lack of employment was really due to his inability to secure it, and not to a desire to live on his out-of-work benefit, instead of by his labour. And if this difficulty were overcome by confining membership of a friendly society to a particular trade, it would be almost certain to develop objects connected with that trade such as would speedily convert it from a friendly society into a trade union. Unemployment insurance therefore is almost entirely left to the trade union.

But trade unions do not only offer insurance against unemployment as an inducement to membership. The extent of their provident work may be gathered from the fact that, in 1908, with nearly two million members, registered trade unions paid in benefits nearly £3,000,000, and of this amount £580,000 only was due to allowances paid to members during strikes and lock-outs. It is useful

to compare these figures with those of a similar nature relating to friendly societies. Ordinary friendly societies (excluding those with branches), with a membership of about 3,250,000 persons, paid in benefits about £2,250,000. It thus appears that the average member of a trade union is in receipt of a larger benefit than the average member of an ordinary friendly society. This is naturally to be expected, seeing that the average contribution of friendly society members is 18s. and that of trade unionists 29s. a year. The importance of unemployment insurance to trade unions emerges from a consideration of the circumstance that in the same year a sum of over £1,000,000 was paid in out-of-work pay.

The expenses of management of trade unions are necessarily higher than those of friendly societies; on an average they amount to about 20 per cent. of the contributions in the case of the former as against 10 per cent. in the latter. This might be anticipated when we consider the expenses incurred on the industrial side of trade union operations.

The amount of the contributions paid and the extent and nature of the benefits assured differ greatly in the several branches of industry covered by trade union operations. Part A of the Report of the Registrar of Friendly Societies groups trade unions into twenty different classes, according to the occupation of the members. The particulars relate to England and Wales only. In unions connected with mining and quarrying, the average annual contribution is 17s. 7d. per member; metal-working, £2 7s. 11d.; conveyance of men, goods, and messages, 19s. 2d.; building and works of construction, £2 13s. 9d.; manufacture of textile fabrics, £1 4s. 11d.; and in unions of

general labourers, 18s. 4d. These six groups comprise 86 per cent. of the membership of registered trade unions. Arranged in order of membership, the first group covers 613,000, and the last 114,000 members of trade unions. The metal-working group is that in which the largest amount is paid in benefits to the members, viz.: £113,000 in dispute pay, £592,000 in out-of-work pay, £18,000 in accident pay, £181,000 in sickness pay, £221,000 in superannuation, £44,000 in sums at death, and £146,000 in various other benefits.

All groups but one—commercial occupations—pay sums at death; all but two—government and municipal, and agriculture—pay unemployed pay; all but two—agriculture and chemicals—pay sickness benefit; while in seven groups there is no accident pay, and in eight no superannuation. It is noticeable that in the two groups where no payment appears for unemployed benefit, unemployment itself is practically non-existent; in the government and municipal group owing to the permanent character of such employment, and in the agriculture group owing to the dearth of labour caused by migration to the towns.

Except, perhaps, in the case of the largest group, "mines and quarries," unemployment insurance is probably the chief inducement among provident benefits to membership of a trade union. The mines and quarries group is an exception because the nature of a miner's occupation is so hazardous, that ordinary friendly societies do not welcome him as a member; indeed, a rule is frequently drafted expressly to exclude the membership of miners. The miner, anxious to make provision for benefits of a friendly society character, falls back on the trade union. It should be mentioned, however, that there

are a number of miners' accident relief societies registered as friendly societies.

Unemployment insurance may almost be regarded as an index to the permanence of a trade union. Probably this accounts to a large extent for the difficulty which has been experienced in establishing trade unions of agricultural labourers. Numerous such organisations have from time to time been established—the life work of the late Mr. Joseph Arch in this direction is known to every student of industrial history—and yet to-day there are only two such unions still registered, and one, the more flourishing, is of comparatively recent formation. As has already been said, unemployment does not exist to any extent among agricultural labourers, and consequently there is no occasion for the provision of unemployment benefit. And for other provident benefits, friendly societies can cover the ground as effectively as trade unions. The result is that where trade unions are established, they are formed to secure the redress of some local or temporary grievance, and with the attainment of the immediate object of their inception, they rapidly decay and pass out of existence. The continuous migration to the towns of all those who have sufficient initiative to break away from the conditions of the agricultural labourer's life must also assist in the decay of trade unionism in agricultural districts. At the moment the promise of small holdings (*q.v.*) to agricultural labourers, and the comparatively small extent to which the demand so called forth has been satisfied, seems likely to result in the formation of new combinations of agricultural labourers. Whether this will result in the organisation of agricultural labour into trade unions of a more permanent and less local

character than those existing hitherto, depends upon the intensity of the demand among agricultural labourers for small holdings and the extent to which their requirements remain unsatisfied by existing or future legislation.

Among general labourers the provision for unemployment is very scanty; in this group only £819 was paid in 1908 in respect of that benefit. The reason would appear to be that among unskilled labourers unemployment is so excessive, the surplus of labour so large, competition for employment so keen, and, withal, wages so small, that a contribution such as would make adequate provision becomes so large as to be almost prohibitive. Besides, each man lives on in the daily expectation that his lot must be better than the average. To accept, in advance, as inevitable the average earnings of the casual labourer, to which the payment of a sufficient contribution to cover his risk of unemployment would be equivalent, would in most cases make even the acceptance of pauperism seem preferable to an independence so meagre and so hardly won.

The result in unions of unskilled labour, even if they achieve any permanency without the bond of unemployment insurance, is a very fluctuating and continually changing membership. In periods of industrial strife, like the dock labourers' strike, which directly affect the general labourer, the membership of unions will increase by leaps and bounds, only to dwindle away in the period of calm which follows a dispute. Every period of industrial depression, too, means a heavy loss of membership, owing to the inability of members to keep up their contributions, a loss which it is difficult to make good again when trade improves.

It is sometimes asserted by those unacquainted with trade union conditions, that because such organisations do not build up the large funds maintained by friendly societies (ordinary friendly societies with 3,500,000 members have £20,000,000 accumulated funds, while trade unions with nearly 2,000,000 members have less than £6,000,000 accumulated) there is not the same security for trade union benefits as offered by friendly societies. It is contended that trade unions are much in the position of ordinary dividing societies who, as a rule, make each year's provision suffice for itself alone. The comparison, however, does not apply. The dividing society starts with a comparatively young and healthy membership, with few sickness or mortality claims to meet, and so is in a position to pay a large dividend at the annual share-out, and flourishes accordingly. But after a period of years, when, with the advancing age of the members, sickness claims become more frequent, while increasingly heavy demands are made upon the members for death levies, the influx of new members is apt to cease, so that a number of old members are left with no accumulated funds to fall back upon, and, consequently, with no provision against their increasing liability to sickness and death but their own enfeebled resources. The trade union, however, if it succeeds at all, so far from discouraging the admission of old members, is compelled to offer inducements to them to join. One of the objects of a trade union is to maintain a standard rate of wages, and it is always a temptation to a man advancing in years and finding employment increasingly difficult to obtain, to accept work at less than the standard rate of wages. There is, therefore, no inducement to establish new unions confined to

the younger members of a trade. So long, therefore, as the incentive to membership of a trade union remains, a continued influx of new members is fairly well assured, and so long as a succession of new members is assured, the benefits are secured by their contributions and such reserves as trade unions do accumulate, small though the latter may appear in comparison with friendly societies.

And there is no reason to anticipate a decline in trade unionism, even supposing a material improvement in the general conditions of labour. The better the conditions of the worker, the more ready he appears to submit to the restrictions of a trade union. The trades which have the most highly developed trade organisations are those in which the workers are most highly paid, while the worst paid trades are hardly organised at all.

There is, however, one exception to what has been said above with regard to the general security of trade union benefits, namely, in the case where a trade itself decays. In such a case it is clear that the union must decay with the trade and if the latter disappears the union must follow it. With constant changes in the processes of production due to new inventions and discoveries, this is an eventuality which cannot be overlooked. It is, however, minimised by the growing tendency among trade unions to eliminate sectional and local interests, and by a process of amalgamation to establish themselves upon a broader and firmer basis. Thus during a number of years past, while the number of registered unions has been decreasing, their membership has continually increased.

Trades for Boys and Girls.—(See also APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, CIVIL

SERVICE FOR FEMALES, CIVIL SERVICE FOR MALES and EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES.) It is obvious that completeness cannot be expected in a short article, and all that has been attempted here is to indicate on general lines some of the chief occupations for which boys and girls are eligible, together with an outline of the prospects in each. For the sake of clearness the article is divided into three sections:—

- (a) Trades for boys only.
- (b) Trades for girls only.
- (c) Trades for boys and girls.

The division is not a hard and fast one, as boy and girl labour often overlap. In view of the increasing difficulty of the problem of boy labour (*q.v.*), Section (a) is dealt with more thoroughly than Sections (b) or (c). Owing to the existence of men's trade unions (*q.v.*), it is possible to be more precise in the matter of wages and prospects for boys than for girls, for whom the conditions of work and wages are very dependent on the character of the employing firm. In many occupations, workers at the top of the scale may earn good money, while their less fortunate sisters are earning a bare living at sweated rates (see SWEATED INDUSTRIES). An inquiry, therefore, into the stability of a firm is always advised when a boy or girl is to be placed in it, and is especially important in the case of girls. In matters of policy no opinion has been expressed, but it is impossible to over-estimate the importance of attending technical classes (see TECHNICAL EDUCATION) wherever it is possible. In this connection may be quoted the following sentence from Mr. Cyril Jackson's Report on Boy Labour (Appendix, vol. xx, to *Royal Commission on the Poor Law and Relief of Distress*, p. 150): "It is safe

to assert that the men require more training and skill than they have at present . . . and it is apparently better to train for a trade by giving general technical knowledge and increasing a man's adaptability." The fact, too, must not be forgotten that in every trade there is a varying amount of unskilled labour. It is not within the scope of this article to draw attention to this element in dealing with each trade, but its existence is noted at the outset as an essential fact in deciding a boy's occupation for him. With the decline of apprenticeship in favour of the system of unbound "learners," it is probable that many boys are employed as "learners" who can never hope to rise above the rank of labourers. Against this, however, should be noted the fact that a good labourer has as good a prospect of permanent work as a skilled workman. Not all boys have the requisite ability to become skilled workmen, but those who have not are more liable to secure permanent work if they become labourers in some highly organised trade (*e.g.*, printing or engineering) than if they do any casual work which comes along and learn to "turn their hand to anything"—a phrase which often indicates unemployability (see UNEMPLOYMENT).

Finally, when apprenticing a boy, a premium should never be paid unless either :—

(1) the trade is one where the boy can spoil valuable materials (*e.g.*, mechanical dentistry); or

(2) the boy is a cripple, or otherwise defective; or

(3) the master gives the boy a home.

Generally speaking, the trade unions discountenance premiums, and, except in these three cases, the demand for a premium is quite an unjustifiable exaction on the part of an employer.

(a) TRADES FOR BOYS.

ARMY. There are excellent openings for boys who intend to make the Army their profession, and do not enlist as a last resource. Particulars can be had from any post office or from the War Office.

BASKET-MAKING is largely carried on either by the blind (see **BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE**) or as a bye-industry during the winter in country villages. It is not a trade to be recommended for normal boys, as there are more workers than work and the pay is consequently poor.

BOILER-MAKING. This trade is mainly carried on in connection with the shipbuilding industry. The proportion of apprentices to journeymen is limited to one in five, and the prospects, therefore, for a boy are good. Five years' apprenticeship is the rule.

BUILDING TRADES. These trades are liable to fluctuations, partly because the demand varies, and partly because frost renders work impossible. There is always, in consequence, some unemployment, which increases during the winter months. Most of the work is done by labourers at 5d. to 7d. per hour, but there is scope for skilled men in the higher branches of work, for which strength and intelligence are needed. The chief processes are :—

(1) *Bricklaying.* Apprenticeship is usual for the best kind of work (*e.g.*, arch and gauge work), and the rate of pay varies from 9d. to 11d. per hour.

(2) *Carpentry and Joinery.* Apprenticeship is usual, and the rate of pay varies from 8d. to 10d. per hour.

(3) *Masonry.* Apprenticeship is usual, and the rate of pay varies from 10d. to 11½d. per hour. There is a demand for good masons.

(4) *Painting and Decorating.* This work is unskilled except in the decoration of walls and ceilings,

which requires great artistic skill, a man being paid according to his ability.

CABINET-MAKING. The increasing introduction of machinery has affected employment in this trade, but it is still a good trade for a clever boy who can learn the best class of work. Apprenticeship is usual, and apprentices in a good firm are usually kept on after the expiry of their time. The rate of wage varies from 7½d. to 10d. per hour. This trade is suitable for the deaf and dumb (*q.v.*).

CHEMICAL MANUFACTURE. Unless a boy has the education and facilities to become a qualified chemist, he has very little prospect of rising above an unskilled labourer earning 25s. to 30s. a week; and since many more boys are employed than can be absorbed even in this way, this trade is not to be recommended for a boy of ordinary ability. If a boy can qualify as a chemist, he has a very good prospect of earning really good wages.

COACH AND MOTOR BODY CONSTRUCTION. Most of this trade is skilled, and the work is constant, except in the wheelmaking and blacksmith processes, which have been hard hit by the increasing use of motors. Five years' apprenticeship is usual in all branches, and a premium is often paid to good firms. The various processes are:—

(1) *Body-building.* A good workman can earn 35s. to 40s. a week.

(2) *Wheelmaking.* This is very skilled work, but the demand for wheelwrights has declined, and the prospects are not, therefore, very good.

(3) *Coach-painting.* This also is very skilled work, especially the painting of heraldic devices and fine finishing. The average weekly earnings are about £2.

(3) *Coach-trimming.* Piece rates are usual, and good money is earned. The work is very skilled.

(5) *Blacksmith work* for the frames, tyres, etc. A good workman can earn 35s. to 40s., or even more; but the trade is declining, and is not to be recommended for the average boy.

COPPER-SMITHING. Nearly all copper-smithing is done by hand, and the best work gives considerable scope for artistic taste. Apprenticeship (5-7 years) is usual. As the proportion of apprentices to men is strictly limited, the trade is not easily entered, but the prospects are good, except in cheap work.

COTTON. The bulk of the boys employed can only hope to become "piecers," earning about 20s. a week, and experience shows that they tend to become dissatisfied with their earnings, and seek other work, and often drift into casual labour. A few get into the card-room or other departments, and earn from 25s. to 32s. a week, and a very few become machine-minders at £2 a week.

ENGINEERING. There are many trades which come under this heading, the principal ones being:—

(1) Mechanical engineering.

(2) Electrical engineering.

(3) Motor engineering.

(2) and (3) are really specialised forms of (1); and unless a boy is fortunate enough to find employment in a really first-class firm of either electrical or motor engineers, he cannot do better than serve his time in mechanical engineering, supplementing his training by attendance at evening schools (see CONTINUATION SCHOOLS). After serving his time, he can usually find employment as an improver in the specialised form of engineering which he wishes to adopt as his trade. Too much care cannot be taken in placing boys in (2) and (3). Many motor firms are of mushroom growth, and are short-lived; and many self-styled electrical engineers only do "wiring," which is not

highly skilled work, and is often combined with other trades (e.g., plumbing). Premiums ought not to be paid except in special circumstances.

In mechanical engineering there are six distinct processes, each one of which is a separate trade in itself, but a knowledge of all the processes is necessary if a workman is to be competent. Such knowledge can be acquired in technical classes (see TECHNICAL EDUCATION). The processes are :—

(a) *Draughtsmanship* (i.e., drawing to scale plans of sections of the work in course of construction for the use of the workmen). Workshop experience and a knowledge of practical mathematics are necessary. The wages are from £2 a week upward. Five years' apprenticeship is usual.

(b) *Pattern-making*. This is very skilled work. The trade union minimum wage is 44s. 6d. a week, the workman providing his own tools. Five years' apprenticeship is usual.

(c) *Founding* (brass and iron). The work is heavy and trying to the eyes. Apprenticeship is unusual, a boy's progress depending on his own industry and ability. The weekly wage varies from 30s. to 42s. a week.

(d) *Smithing*. Boys begin as hammerers about the age of eighteen, and rise to be smiths if they have the ability. A hammerer earns about 25s. a week and a smith 38s. to 40s. a week.

(e) *Turning*. Five years' apprenticeship is usual. The trade union minimum wage is 40s. a week.

(f) *Fitting*. Five years' apprenticeship is usual. The trade union minimum wage is £2 a week.

ENGRAVING. *Copper-plate Engraving* has been largely displaced by lithography and photo-process work (see PRINTING TRADES), but there is still scope for fine work

(e.g., bank-note engraving). The future is so uncertain, that it is not a trade to be recommended for boys.

Silver and Other Precious Metal Engraving is a good trade. Apprenticeship without a premium is usual. A man's earnings average about £2 a week. Employment is regular.

FARM WORK. The prospects of farm work vary according to the district, and still more according to the boys' ability and initiative. The pay of an ordinary farm hand is not good, but the training is excellent for emigration purposes, or a lad can acquire land of his own for farming purposes. A town boy can become self-supporting at once by going on a farm, and it is not difficult to find places. Care should be taken, however, that the boy is properly supervised (see BOYS' COUNTRY WORK SCHEME).

GARDEN WORK. An indoor apprenticeship with a nursery gardener is the best way of learning skilled gardening. A good man can always get good work, and if a boy likes the country he cannot do better than learn this trade. Places can usually be found through advertising.

GLASS TRADES. These are rough trades, and tend to be overstocked, as many more boys are employed than can be absorbed as men. Work is carried on in day and night shifts, boys being allowed to do night work by special provision of the Factory Acts (q.v.). To ensure his future, a boy should be apprenticed. The earnings of a man are very good. The trade is carried on chiefly in the North of England and Scotland. The chief branches are :—

(1) *Bottle-making*. The pay is good, ranging between £2 and £3 a week.

(2) *Glass-blowing*. Apprenticeship is insisted on by the trade union; 35s. to 40s. represent a man's average weekly earnings.

(3) *Mica and Plate-glass Making*.

Apprenticeship is not usual in any of the various processes of this trade, in which considerable unemployment exists. The trade is not one to be recommended.

(4) *Stained Glass Manufacture.* A good draughtsman can earn anything up to £3 a week. Glass stainers and glaziers earn 8d. to 8½d. an hour. Five years' apprenticeship is usual. There is little unemployment, but short hours are worked in the winter.

GUN-MAKING. The best sporting guns are still made by hand, but the trade is a close one, being confined to the sons of workmen. Seven years' apprenticeship is usual, with small wages to commence. A competent man can earn £2 or more a week. Service rifles are made by machinery, and require no special skill.

JEWELLERY AND GOLDSMITHING. This work is very delicate, and requires considerable taste and skill. Apprenticeship is usual, and a premium is often demanded to cover the loss incurred by waste of material when an apprentice is learning. A good workman can earn £2 upwards a week, and the demand is constant.

LOCKSMITH. Except in good locks the parts are usually cut out by machinery and put together by the locksmith. Apprenticeship is usual for the best work, which demands intelligence, and is not overstocked.

MECHANICAL DENTISTRY. This is a very good trade for a well-mannered, intelligent boy who is dexterous with his fingers. Apprenticeship to a qualified man is necessary; a premium is usually required, and low wages are paid during apprenticeship. There is no unemployment; and, apart from the fact that it is possible to qualify as a dentist, a good mechanic can earn £3 upwards a week.

NAVY.—(See SEAMEN, TRAINING OF.)

OPTICAL INSTRUMENT MAKING.

This trade is subdivided into several processes, of which a boy would only learn one. Apprenticeship is not usual, and as the work is not very skilled, the prospects are not so good as in surgical instrument-making. There is some unemployment, and the minimum wage varies from 7d. to 8d. per hour.

PRINTING AND ALLIED TRADES.

Owing to the action of strong trade unions in restricting the proportion of apprentices to journeymen, the printing trades offer good prospects to intelligent boys who have the ability to adapt themselves to new types of machinery. Statistics seem to indicate that a very large proportion of apprentices are employed when out of their time by the firm in which they serve their apprenticeship. Attendance at technical classes (see TECHNICAL EDUCATION) is strongly advised, especially for compositors.

The various branches of printing are:—

(1) *Composing, i.e.,* the setting up and spacing of the type. Much of this work is done by machines, but for a boy with a good eye and artistic taste there is scope for hand work in setting up advertisements, etc. A boy must be a good reader and speller. Seven years' apprenticeship is necessary, as the trade unions will not recognise a shorter period of training. Many boys are employed as reading boys, who, owing to trade union regulations, can never be apprenticed. A boy should be placed definitely on trial for apprenticeship, and should not be allowed to work merely as reading boy.

(2) *Machine-minding, i.e.,* the process of printing from the "forme" prepared by the compositor. Seven years' apprenticeship is necessary. Much overtime work is done, especially in the autumn. In this branch also care

must be taken that a boy is properly apprenticed. Many boys are employed as feeders, who have very little prospect of becoming even printers' labourers, and no prospect of becoming machine-minders. In some towns in the North of England, girls are employed as feeders.

(3) *Job Printing*. This is all hand work, one man being able to do the whole. For a man with initiative, the prospect is good, but not so sure as in composing or machine-minding.

(4) *Lithography, i.e.*, the printing of pictures. In this branch there is a great dearth of skilled workmen, and it is said that there is no unemployment. It is a good trade for boys with marked artistic ability, although it is probable that photo-process work will displace much litho work. Five years' apprenticeship is usual. The pay is from 10d. to 1s. an hour.

(5) *Photo-process Work*. The prospects of a boy who can etch well are excellent, but care must be taken that he learns the skilled part of the trade and is not employed to do unskilled work. Five years' apprenticeship is usual.

(6) *Bookbinding*. In this trade machinery has largely displaced hand work, and the prospects vary according to the class of work done. A boy should learn both leather and cloth work, and, if possible, he should do both "forwarding" and "finishing," and thus gain a thorough knowledge of the trade. The prospect of a boy doing cloth binding only is not very good, as the work is of a low class, and performed mainly by boys and girls; at best, he may get work in a non-Society shop on a slightly superior binding. In the best class of work (for which considerable artistic taste is required), the prospect is good, as there is a dearth of good workmen. The proportion of boys to men allowed by trade unions

averages about one boy to three men. Five-seven years' apprenticeship is usual without a premium. A man can earn 35s. per week upwards.

Vellum binding is similar work, but is not quite so skilled, and the pay is slightly less.

SADDLERY AND HARNESS-MAKING
This trade has suffered from the introduction of motors, and its prospects are very uncertain. Piece rates are generally paid and 33s. to £2 a week can be earned, but there is much unemployment.

SHEET METAL WORK. There is a constant demand for all kinds of this work, and the prospect is good for a boy possessing powers of adaptability. Boys are usually employed as learners rather than as apprentices. The minimum wage varies from 7½d. to 8½d. an hour, but a good workman can earn 1s. or even more.

SIGN-WRITING. This is a good trade for boys who can draw. The work is healthy (provided that precautions are taken against lead-poisoning (*q.v.*)) and regular. Five years' apprenticeship is usual, and a premium is often required, but, if paid, the wages during the apprenticeship should be high in proportion. A man's earnings depend on his ability. A good workman can earn 1s. an hour.

SILVER TRADES. (1) *Silver Chasing*. This is a very good trade for boys who have marked artistic ability. Five to seven years' apprenticeship is usual. A good chaser can earn £3 to £5 a week, and nearly all earn £2. Employment is regular.

(2) *Silver-smithing*. The prospect for a boy apprenticed to *large* silver work is very good, as the best work is done by hand. A journeyman can earn £2 to £4 a week, according to his skill. In *small* silver work machinery is much used, and less skill is required. Apprenticeship is

unusual, and a journeyman only earns 30s. to 35s. a week. Premiums are not usual in either branch.

(3) *Silver Engraving*. This is suitable for a boy who can design well. Five to seven years' apprenticeship is usual.

SPECTACLE FRAME MAKING. Apprenticeship is usual. The work is very skilled, and is well paid at piece rates. It is an excellent trade for an undersized boy who can use his fingers intelligently.

SURGICAL INSTRUMENT MAKING. A very good trade for intelligent boys who are clever with their fingers and have good hearing and eyesight. Five years' apprenticeship is usual, and a premium is often required. Piece rates are paid, and a good workman can earn £2 to £3 a week. There is no unemployment, and the work is constant.

TICKET-WRITING. This is a suitable trade for cripples who can draw. Apprenticeship is usual. A man's earnings range from 25s. to 40s. a week.

TINSMITHING is not a good trade for boys to enter, because the work is increasingly done by machines, which can be looked after by boys, a large percentage of whom cannot be absorbed in the trade as men.

TRANSPORT. (1) The *Railways* are the largest employers of transport labour. Most railways absorb their boys, so that permanent employment is fairly well assured. The occupations are chiefly as porters, carriage cleaners, and greasers. The pay is not very good, and about 30 per cent. of the boys employed seek more remunerative work. The remainder become gradually absorbed in these branches.

(2) The *G.P.O.* employ 16,500 telegraph messengers, of whom nearly all are compelled to leave the service at the age of sixteen

(see *BOY LABOUR*). The conditions of their employment are under consideration, and it is probable that in future an arrangement will be made under which the boys, if they wish, can remain in Government employment.

(3) *Carriers*. The prospects of the boys employed by carriers are very uncertain, and a large percentage undoubtedly become casual labourers, very many more boys being employed than can possibly be absorbed.

(4) *Errand Boys*. The prospects of an errand boy are nil, unless the employer can and will take him into the workshop.

TRUNK AND PORTMANTEAU-MAKING. (a) *Leather*. The best work is done entirely by hand, and the prospects for a boy are good. Apprenticeship is unusual, boys being employed as learners. The trade is seasonal, but high wages during the busy season counterbalance the periods of unemployment.

(b) *Fibre*. This is a new trade, in which most of the work is unskilled, but high wages prevail. Apprenticeship is unknown and the work is rough, but the prospects are good, as the trade is increasing rapidly.

WATCH AND CLOCK-MAKING. Except in Coventry, watch-making is not a large trade in this country, the bulk of our watches being imported. Clock-making is found everywhere. The trade is a good one, because it makes the learners adaptable, so that, if necessary, he can take up other work. Employment is fairly regular, and the trade is not overstocked. Apprenticeship is unusual, except to repairing in a small firm (which is not advised). A competent man can earn 30s. to 40s. a week.

WORSTED. The proportion of boys employed is much too great, and the work provides no training

at all, so that many drift into casual unskilled labour. The fortunate ones who are absorbed in the trade as men earn about £2 a week, but there is no certainty about a boy's prospects.

(b) TRADES FOR GIRLS.

ARTIFICIAL FLOWER-MAKING is suitable for a crippled or delicate child. Wages are low, except for the best work, averaging between 12s. and 20s. a week, according to skill. Two years' training is usual. The trade is seasonal.

CONFECTIONERY. There is no apprenticeship in this trade, but fair prospects, especially as very many firms take especial interest in the welfare of their employees. The work is seasonal, unless the firm undertakes an extra line (*e.g.*, crackers) in slack times. Earnings vary from 12s. to 18s., according to the process in which the girl is employed.

DRESSMAKING is a good trade for a capable girl doing a good class of work, as there is always the prospect of becoming a forewoman, earning 30s. a week upwards. A two years' apprenticeship is usual, and special provision should be made, if possible, with regard to holidays, as the trade is very seasonal, and girls are often forced to take holidays without pay when work is slack. Besides the actual dressmaking, there are :—

(1) *Stockroom* work. Two years' apprenticeship; earnings vary from 15s. or 17s. to 35s. a week, or even more.

(2) *Showroom* work. Two years' apprenticeship. A good saleswoman can earn 25s. to 30s. a week, with a good prospect of becoming a manageress at £2 to £3 a week.

EMBROIDERY. There are several branches of this trade, viz. :—

(1) *Hand Embroidery.* Two years' apprenticeship. Embroideresses can earn 15s. to 25s. a

week; designers, 20s. to 30s.; capable women combining both processes, 25s. to £2 or more. The prospect is very good indeed for a girl with originality.

(2) *Machine Embroidery.* There is a great demand for good workers, who can earn 30s. a week or more, but the work is not very healthy, because there is so much stooping.

(3) *Military Embroidery.* This branch is overstocked owing partly to the disuse of elaborate uniforms and partly to the replacing of worsted lettering by metal.

(4) *Masonic Embroidery.* A good class trade, in which work is regular. A woman can earn 15s. to 20s. a week as a hand, and 28s. as forewoman.

FEATHER TRADE. The work is light and can be done by cripples (see TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT OF CRIPPLES), but is not good for a girl with a weak chest, on account of the fluff and steam. Two or three years' apprenticeship is usual; average earnings, 12s. 6d. to 15s. a week. The work is seasonal, being slack in the winter.

FLORISTS' WORK. This is a heavy trade, difficult to learn and requires great artistic talent. Two years' apprenticeship is usual. A good hand can earn 30s. a week. The work fluctuates on account of the irregularity of the demand.

FRENCH POLISHING. Women have replaced men in this trade. The prospect is good for a rough class of girl, a woman's earnings averaging about 15s. a week.

JEWEL CASE LINING AND COVERING. Three to four years' apprenticeship is usual. The work is clean and regular. A time wage is usually paid, a woman earning about 15s. a week.

JEWELLERY AND SILVER POLISHING. Girls are usually employed as learners, and can rise to 15s. a week.

LACQUERING. Girls are usually employed as learners; those engaged in the best class of work can rise to 16s. or 18s. a week.

LAUNDRY WORK. The prospect for strong girls is good in all branches, the best paid being shirt ironing. The work is heavy and the conditions are uncomfortable, but not unhealthy (see **LAUNDRIES**). Apprenticeship is unusual, but is being increasingly resorted to, as employers find difficulty in keeping their girls. Ordinary workers can earn 10s. to 18s. a week, shirt ironers 18s. to 25s. a week, and there is always the chance of becoming a forewoman.

MACHINING. Machinists are required in nearly all trades, and a good machinist can always earn a living. The conditions of work and the wages vary according to the trade, and the class of work done. When placing a girl, the firm's terms for paying women machinists should be ascertained, and care should be taken that an intelligent girl should learn a good class of machining.

PACKING. Packers also are required in many different trades, and a girl's prospects depend entirely on the trade and class of work. The pay, as a rule, is not very good.

SHIRT-MAKING is a much sweated trade (see **SWEATED INDUSTRIES**). An adept worker, making a good class of shirt, can earn 12s. to 16s. a week.

WATERPROOF-MAKING is declining. The prospect is not very good, and the work is not highly skilled. The average earnings are about 12s. a week.

WHOLESALE CLOTHING. A girl's prospects depend entirely on the firm and class of work. The majority of the employees are machinists earning about 15s. a week. A good designer can earn as much as £3 to £4 a week.

UMBRELLA AND SUNSHADE MAKING. The class of workers is rough. Quickness at sewing is the chief essential. Piece rates are paid, the average earnings being 14s. to 16s. a week.

(c) TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

BOOT MANUFACTURE. (a) *Boys* fit the soles to the uppers. Machinery has seriously encroached upon handwork, but there is still a demand for good hand-sewn boots and shoes, and surgical boots are always made by hand. The trade can be learned by cripples (see **BOYS' WORKSHOPS**). Piece rates are usually paid, and a very good workman can earn £3 3s. a week. Apprenticeship is customary, and a premium with small wages is usual in the case of a cripple.

In machine work a machine-minder earns about 30s. a week and other workers about 25s. Apprenticeship is not usual.

(b) *Girls* make the uppers. There is no apprenticeship, and a good worker earns about 15s. The trade is seasonal.

BOX AND PACKING-CASE MAKING. (a) *Boys* learn the heavier class of work. Apprenticeship is unusual. The work is regular, and the minimum wage varies from 6½d. to 8½d. an hour. A suitable trade for boys who are deaf and dumb.

(b) *Girls* make the lighter boxes. Handwork is being rapidly displaced by machinery, and wages are low (10s. to 12s. a week), but work is constant.

BRUSH-MAKING. A suitable trade for the blind (*q.v.*), and not to be recommended for normal boys and girls, because machinery is displacing handwork and the wages are very poor (see **SWEATED INDUSTRIES**). The manufacture of artists' brushes is a good trade, but is confined to the children of workpeople already engaged in it.

CLERICAL WORK. There is scope for both boys and girls who will learn shorthand and typewriting, and are possessed of a good appearance. A clever girl can always find work, but the supply of male clerks exceeds the demand, and unless a boy is very diligent, his prospects are poor (see CIVIL SERVICE FOR FEMALES and CIVIL SERVICE FOR MALES).

HAIRDRESSING AND WIG-MAKING.

(a) A good barber and wig-maker can earn good money, but on the whole the trade is ill-paid, and many more "lather-boys" are employed than can be absorbed. The trade is not very healthy, and is not to be recommended for a strong and intelligent boy (see BOY LABOUR).

(b) A girl with artistic taste, who combines both branches of the trade, can earn £2 to £3 a week, but it is only the few who can expect to do this. Those who are wig-makers only are not likely ever to earn more than 20s. or 22s. a week.

PHOTOGRAPHY. (a) Boys with a weak heart can take up this work, and the prospects are good for a boy with artistic taste. Apprenticeship is usual. A man can earn from £1 to £5 a week.

(b) Girls with taste and intelligence, and neat with their fingers, have very good prospects in this trade, and can hope to earn as much as 30s. if they become skilful workers. Many girls are employed in factories where the work is regular, but the pay does not, as a rule, exceed 15s. or 16s. a week.

PRIVATE SERVICE. (a) Boys who are tall, well-proportioned, good-looking, and intelligent have excellent prospects in indoor private service, as they can rise to the position of butlers. The restrictions, however, inherent in the work are apt to become irksome, and unless a boy seems really suited for the work, it is not advisable to

put him to it. In outdoor private service the restrictions are not so arduous, but preliminary knowledge of motors or horses is necessary.

(b) For girls there can be no better calling, as the work is healthy, natural, highly skilled, and an admirable preparation for marriage. For those who remain single, there are excellent situations in large households. Statistics indicate that the demand is greatest for scullerymaids, kitchenmaids, and housemaids, but it is never difficult for a properly trained servant to find work. When placing a girl in her first situation, care should be taken that she will receive a good training. A girl can be self-supporting at the outset.

RESTAURANT WORK. (a) Boys. The bulk of the skilled work is in the hands of foreigners, but there is a movement to train boys to do the work (cooking and waiting) now done by foreigners, and it may be that Englishmen will be able to compete with the foreigner. A good *chef* can command high and regular wages, but a waiter usually relies on tips and does not receive a regular wage.

(b) Girls. The conditions vary with the firm, but the occupation is not to be recommended, because it lays a girl open to many temptations, and the pay is not very good. Waitresses may rise to 20s. a week, but seldom get more than 10s. or 12s. Cashiers earn from 7s. 6d. to 12s. 6d., cooks, 12s. to 15s.; and washers-up, 6s. to 8s.

SHOP ASSISTANTS. For both boys and girls, the prospects depend entirely upon the firm. The hours are very long, the pay is not good, the life is unhealthy, the restrictions are irksome, and the cost of living high, owing to the necessity of "keeping up an appearance." A boy may hope to become a shop-walker and earn £2 to £3 a week,

but more probably he will change his occupation. A girl is never likely to earn more than 25s. a week.

TAILORING. There is much sweating in this trade, and wages are very irregular. It is a home industry (see SWEATED INDUSTRIES).

(a) *Boys* should learn tailoring throughout, if possible. Coat-making and ladies' tailoring are the best paid branches, a good workman being able to earn £4 or £5 a week. Cutting is not usually taught, and only the best men learn it. A good cutter can earn £5 to £10 a week.

(b) *Women* make waistcoats and act as assistants to the men in the other parts, doing most of the machining required. Working in a mixed shop may be injurious to a girl's morals, and the work is very variable. The trade is not to be recommended.

TOBACCO TRADES. (a) *Boys* are employed in much larger numbers than can be absorbed as men, and these trades offer very little prospect. If a boy is fortunate enough to be kept on by his firm as a man, he can earn between 30s. and 40s. a week.

(b) *Girls* have excellent prospects as the trades are light and clean, and not disagreeable after the worker is accustomed to the smell of tobacco. There are many different processes; apprenticeship is unusual in any, and the pay ranges from 10s. to 18s. a week, according to the skill of the worker. Employment is constant.

UPHOLSTERY. (a) For *boys* who learn their trade in a good firm the prospects are good. Three to five years' apprenticeship is usual, and a premium of £10 to £15 is not infrequently paid. The minimum rate of wages varies between 8½d. and 10d. an hour. Work is slack in the winter and busiest in the spring. There is not much unemployment.

(b) *Girls* are restricted by the trade unions to machining, but there is considerable scope in such kindred trades as lampshade making, eiderdown quilt making, etc. Apprenticeship is unusual. Wages vary from 12s. 6d. to 20s. a week, according to the firm and the skill of the worker.

Training and Employment of Cripples.—(See also EDUCATION OF CRIPPLES and GUILD OF THE BRAVE POOR THINGS.) No trades for cripples should be entertained if carried on under unduly long hours, and with bad or insufficient arrangements as to meals, ventilation, and recreation.

It should be pointed out to parents, that unless the health of the child is secured, all is lost.

For cripples, it is essential that trades involving some moving about and change of position be chosen, and where a certain amount of exercise is taken; for some, out-of-door work is best of all. If indoor work is chosen, it should be done in airy workrooms or workshops, and under well-lit and healthy conditions.

The shortest prevalent hours are eight, and often but half an hour is allowed for dinner, whereas for a crippled child an hour is necessary.

Trades involving much dust should be avoided, or adequate protection from the ill-effects of such should be assured.

The constant cleaning of the hands and garments used at work should be duly impressed upon the children.

Trades with no slack seasons, and no time of great pressure, should be chosen, and those with a future selected in preference to dying trades.

The greater the general knowledge of the child, the better is his chance at the trade chosen, therefore regular school attendance and extra classes should be encouraged.

In advising and helping cripples, the aim should be to render them ultimately self-supporting; and parents must be encouraged to regard the future of their children from every standpoint, and not merely that of the present gain of a trifling wage.

The general education of every child in London is now guaranteed by the London County Council (*q.v.*) (see SPECIAL SCHOOLS), and even in hospitals (*q.v.*) and convalescent homes (*q.v.*) systematic teaching is given.

Industrial training is most important for all physically defective children, for on hand and brain will depend the failure or success of after life.

The general health of the London children is also well provided for, since hospitals and dispensaries abound, and never has the health of the nation as a whole received more attention than to-day.

It is of importance that children should be happy in their work, particularly cripples, who, of all people, need to be trained in habits of endurance and courage and perseverance. Too many societies ignore this fact, and weaken the characters of the very children they exist to help, by the manner and form in which the help is given. To encourage self-respect must always be the first aim of all workers in the interests of crippled children.

The choice of employment is all-important. Whenever possible, children should be placed in special residential homes, such as the Residential Craft Schools at Chailey, where the influence, as well as the training, are always most beneficial to these children at the most important period of their life.

At the Craft Schools at Chailey a thorough training is given to the boys in all branches of woodwork, fitting them, in due course, to take

up positions as cabinet-makers, joiners, draughtsmen, estate carpenters, and the like; and to the girls in all branches of fine needle work, enabling them to earn their own living either in the employment of well-known firms, or in private houses as sewing and children's maids.

A further scheme of training is offered at these residential schools to intelligent, non-crippled children in domestic economy (*q.v.*) and housewifery, and the results of this lately established school are amazingly encouraging.

The following trades have been tested and proved to be suitable for cripples by various societies, notably the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*): for boys, all branches of woodwork, including joinery, cabinet-making, estate carpentry, and the like; repairing and hand-sewn boot-making (see BOYS' WORKSHOPS); various branches of the saddlery trade, including whip and harness-making and football sewing. In the metal trades, cripples can be employed in engraving and chasing, and situations have been found for many in stick and pipe-making, litho designing, photo-process engraving, ticket and show-card writing, brush preparing and panning, jewel-case and basket-making; some branches of the tailoring trade (but it is not advisable that pressing or cutting should be taken up by cripples); various branches of the watch-making, brush-making, and relief stamping trades; useful and fancy leather work, which has been proved to be so very suitable for cripples at Sir William Treloar's Cripple Home and Colony at Alton, where leather-bag making is the principal feature at present.

For crippled girls, the most useful trade of all is undoubtedly fine needlework in all its countless and varied branches; dressmaking,

blouse-making, some branches of upholstery and mantle finishing, buttonholing and waistcoat-making have also been proved successful trades for girls. Various forms of machining trades such as those connected with boot-tacking, metal piercing and jewellery polishing, and the lining and covering of jewel-cases, lacemaking and mending, silk hat sewing and trimming, artificial flower-making and mounting, feather-curling and sewing, envelope hand-folding and hand-cementing, and book hand-folding are all practised more or less successfully by crippled girls.

For the generally delicate, anæmic, as well as crippled girls, all the above-mentioned trades are suitable, as are also hairdressing, some poultry and farm work, colour mixing and shading for artificial florists, nursery gardening, straw hat making, and small paper-bag folding.

For the one-armed boy and girl the outlook is somewhat more limited, but many are holding positions as messengers, assurance agents, travellers, corn samplers, lift attendants, errand boys and girls, office girls and clerks, canvassers for machines, and embroidery and simple machine feeding.

Training Colleges.—(See TEACHERS, TRAINING OF.)

Training Colonies.—(See UNEMPLOYMENT.)

Training Ships.—(See HOME OFFICE TRAINING SHIPS.)

Transport.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Truant Schools.—(See also HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS and JUVENILE OFFENDERS.) This term is now obsolete, that of Short Term Industrial Schools having been substituted. They were formerly known as truant schools because they received as scholars only children dealt with for breach of

the school attendance order. In theory it is expected that commitments to them should be restricted to boys whose home surroundings are such as can easily be made capable of assisting them in keeping on the right path—to cases, in fact, for which a brief period of probation rather than prolonged detention is the proper remedy. In view of the provisions of the Probation Act (see PROBATION OFFICERS), it is doubtful whether magistrates will continue to send children to Short Term Industrial Schools, for the number of such schools has fallen from fifteen to ten during the last five years, and only 930 boys were inmates at the end of 1909.

Truck Acts.—Although the Truck Acts do not form part of the Factory Act of 1901 (*q.v.*), they are administered by factory inspectors (*q.v.*), who, for the purposes of inspection, have the same power as under the Factory Act. The Acts are designed to ensure to workmen that their wages shall be paid in current coin and not in goods. They forbid the employer to cause the workman to spend his wages at any particular shop or in any particular way, and they prohibit the infliction of fines except under certain specified conditions.

In 1906 a Departmental Committee was appointed to inquire into the working of the Truck Acts, and in 1908 the committee, after eighty-two meetings, came to the conclusion that very many serious abuses existed with which the present statutory powers are inadequate to deal. The committee discovered that the provisions of the Acts gave rise to great difficulties of interpretation, and that eminent judges had given different rulings as to their meanings; and, therefore, made no less than thirty-two recommendations as to the way

in which the Acts might be strengthened. So far as is known, however, the report of the Departmental Committee has not led to even the beginnings of legislation, although the evidence given before the committee revealed the fact that imperfect as the present law undoubtedly is, considerable improvement in the condition of the workers would result if its provisions were strictly enforced. Owing partly to the uncertainty of judicial decisions and partly to the ignorance of the workers, many practices apparently forbidden, prevail all over the country. Several witnesses laid stress upon the point that the Acts were not used by the workpeople, and that no attempt was made to call the inspectors' attention to breaches of the provisions.

Probably one of the most important clauses of the Acts deals with fines and deductions from wages. When the Act of 1896 was first passed, some of the workpeople seem to have thought that it was designed to make fines legal, whereas it restricts the right of the employer to make deductions from his workmen's wages, and only allows him to do so if he posts in his factory a notice specifying the fines and deductions which he intends to impose, or if he gets his workmen to sign a contract agreeing to the proposed fines. It is also provided that these fines should be fair and reasonable. Fines are, however, imposed for the most trivial offences, especially among unorganised workers. In a case which came ultimately before the High Court, the girls were under contract with their employer to observe due order and decorum, and, relying on this contract, he fined them for dancing in their dinner hour. The court held that the contract was good and the fine justifiable. This decision has led to many abuses; and Miss Squire, a

factory inspector, says that the girls are fined for such trivial matters as sneezing, laughing, singing, cheeking the foreman, and wearing hair curlers. Sometimes the fines for offences and deductions for bad work amount to a considerable proportion of the week's wages, and when this is the case the worker is always in debt to her employer. The majority of the Departmental Committee recommended that no fines should be imposed on persons under sixteen, and that the maximum fine in any one week should not exceed 5 per cent. of the wages earned by the workers; while Mrs. Tennant and Mr. Stephen Walsh signed a minority report urging that disciplinary fines of any and every kind should be prohibited by law, and that deductions for bad work should be similarly forbidden.

Another point on which the existing law has proved unsatisfactory is the application of the Act of 1896 to outworkers (see FACTORY OUTWORKERS). It was probably intended that every worker, whether employed at home or in the factory, should have the benefit of the Act, but judges have decided otherwise; and to this day very many of the home workers in remote parts of the country are paid not in money, but in groceries. It is stated that though the price charged for the tea and other articles given in exchange for the work is less exorbitant in recent years, the evil still exists. Even if the money is actually handed over, no more work is to be obtained unless the wages are left at the shop. In some cases the workers are encouraged to get heavily into debt, and to wipe off their indebtedness by out-work. The committee unhesitatingly recommended that out-workers should be paid in coin, and that it should be an offence to cause them to spend their wages in any particular manner or at any particular shop.

Among other things, the Truck Committee considered the question of living-in for shop assistants. Part of the wages of these assistants are paid in board and lodging, and, therefore, there may be abuses which could be remedied by an extension of the Truck Acts. The majority of the committee decided that adequate inspection of the sleeping and feeding arrangements would be sufficient; while the minority of the committee, Mrs. Tennant and Mr. Walsh, recommended that "living-in" be abolished altogether. The committee also recommended the abolition of deductions for use of tools, machinery, standing room, light, heat, and meal rooms; and the enforcement of the law by factory inspectors (*q.v.*) in docks and warehouses, as well as in factories and workshops. (See also SHOPS.)

Trunk-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Trustee Savings Banks.—(See THRIFT.)

Tuberculosis.—(See ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS DISPENSARY SYSTEM, PREVENTION OF CONSUMPTION AND SANATORIA FOR CONSUMPTIVES.)

Turning.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Tutorial Classes.—(See WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.)

Typewriting.—(See BLIND, EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE.)

Typhoid Fever.—(See NOTIFICATION OF DISEASES.)

Typists.—(See CIVIL SERVICE FOR FEMALES)

Umbrella-making.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Underfed Children.—(See FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.)

Underground Workrooms.—In the Factory and Workshop Act of 1901 (*q.v.*) only one class of underground workroom was specially legislated for—bakehouses (*q.v.*).

Pavement lights and gratings in front of shop windows are, however, often the only means of lighting and the only inlets of fresh air to huge basements, in which many workers spend twelve or fourteen hours a day; and in her annual report the chief Lady Inspector of Factories (Miss Anderson) has commented upon the fact that there are still no special or extra requirements for workrooms which do not directly communicate with the outer air. In 1906 an attempt was made to insist that all underground workshops should be certified by the district council before use, but the Bill was defeated.

Undesirable Immigrants.—(See also IMMIGRATION.) The statute regulating the admission of aliens (*q.v.*) into the United Kingdom defines the "undesirable immigrant," who may be excluded at the port of entry. He is so to be considered "if he cannot show that he has in his possession or is in a position to obtain the means of decently supporting himself and his dependents (if any)"; or if he is a lunatic, or owing to any disease or infirmity appears likely to become a charge upon the rates, or otherwise a detriment to the public; or if he has been sentenced in a foreign country for an extraditable crime, or if an expulsion order under the Act has previously been made against him. But undesirable immigrants do not include the refugees, that is, "an immigrant who proves that he is seeking admission to this country solely to avoid prosecution or punishment on religious or political grounds, or for an offence of a political character; or persecution, involving danger of imprisonment or danger to life or limb, on account of religious belief." Leave to land, in his case, "shall not be refused on the ground merely of want of means, or the probability of his becoming a charge on the rates."

Unemployment.—(See also POOR LAW REFORM.) An entirely adequate investigation into the birth and growth of unemployment in this country would involve economic considerations beyond the scope of this article, necessitating, as it would, a considered and detailed review of the history of the English Poor Law (see POOR LAW, HISTORY OF).

There can be no cut-and-dried solution for this complex and bewildering problem, and one can only indicate briefly some of the main points to which the attention of the student should be directed.

Legislative interference between masters and workmen does not date from recent or comparatively recent times, because as far back as 1495 an Act of Parliament was passed to fix the scale of wages that should be paid, while in 1601 the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth empowered the churchwardens in every parish to "set to work all persons having no means to support them."

The England of the fifteenth century may be said to have been a country of small holdings and peasant proprietorship, and it is not without interest to recall the fact in the opening years of the twentieth century, when the cry of "back to the land" has attained more than an academic significance. The root cause of the problem that faces us to-day can be attributed in a very large degree to the abnormal rush from the country to large urban centres of population, which distinguished in particular the second half of the nineteenth century, and is still progressing with almost mechanical regularity. It is impossible to trace in detail the various attempts of municipal and private enterprise, or organised philanthropic effort that have been set on foot to alleviate conditions of exceptional unemployment during the last thirty years, but no consideration

of the circumstances that gave rise to legislative interference would be complete without reference to the Mansion House Fund of 1885-1886, the Conference at the Mansion House in 1892, and the London Unemployed Fund of 1903-1904. The Mansion House Fund in 1885-86 cannot be said to have been a conspicuous success, while the Mansion House Conference in 1892, originated by the residents at Toynbee Hall, was confined to distress existing in particular parts of the East End of London, and the results obtained were of merely local significance.

The close of the South African War, when large numbers of men returned to this country seeking employment, together with a marked depression in the building trade at that particular time, produced a problem which on all sides was admitted to be acute. A national conference on the unemployed question was summoned at the Guildhall, and upwards of one hundred city and borough councils, besides a very large number of trade unions and similar societies, were represented. Resolutions were passed calling upon the Government of the day to take action by the appointment of a Minister of Labour, and to devise and promote measures for the temporary and permanent utilisation of the unemployed labour of the nation.

Following this conference, the London Unemployed Fund, otherwise known as Mr. Walter Long's Committee, came into being in 1904, and worked by means of local committees in each of the London metropolitan boroughs.

Mr. Long's Committee may be said to have paved the way for the legislation that was to follow. Indeed, Mr. Gerald Balfour, in introducing the Unemployed Workmen Bill on April 18, 1905, was

specially careful to give credit to his predecessor, Mr. Long, for originating the scheme that was about to receive legislative sanction.

The Act of 1905 was the first serious attempt in modern times made by Parliament to grapple with the problem, and although originally passed for a limited period of one year, it has been renewed each year since, and exists to-day. It may be well, therefore, to indicate briefly its scope and provisions.

Mr. Balfour, in moving its second reading, stated that its object was to assist that limited class of the unemployed "honestly desirous of obtaining work, but temporarily unable to do so from exceptional causes over which the applicant had no control." He further stated that the relief of recurrent distress was not contemplated by the Bill, and that the distress committees to be formed were to find work, but not to provide it.

The Act is divided into eight sections, and provides for the establishment within the Metropolis (and also in the provinces with certain restrictions as to population) of distress committees of every borough council, to consist, in part, of members of the borough council, members of the board of guardians, and persons in each borough from outside such bodies, but experienced in the relief of distress.

A Central Body for the whole of the administrative county of London is also provided, constituted of members of and selected by the local distress committees, the London County Council (*q.v.*), persons co-opted by the Central Body itself, and persons nominated by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*).

The functions of local distress committees are to make themselves acquainted with the conditions of labour within their area, and to

receive, inquire into, and discriminate between applications received from the unemployed. The Central Body has the duty imposed upon it of controlling and, as far as possible, co-ordinating the action of the local distress committees. To the Central Body is also given the task of finding suitable work for the men¹ referred to them by the distress committees, of establishing labour colonies and labour exchanges, and of arranging for the migration or emigration of suitable candidates.

It was originally intended that the cost of this scheme should be met (*a*) by voluntary contributions given for the purpose, and (*b*) by a rate which the Central Body could levy on the borough councils for certain limited purposes, such as establishment charges and the expenses of labour exchanges, and the migration and emigration of unemployed persons and their dependents.

As a matter of fact, the voluntary contributions were soon found to be entirely inadequate for the purpose, and the work has for some years been carried on solely by means of large sums granted each year by Parliament, and known as the Exchequer Fund, and by the rate imposed upon the local authorities.

It would be impossible to deal with the operations under the Act during the five years it has been in force, in any detail; but before glancing at some of the departments of the work, a word or two may here be said as to phases of the problem with which those who were

¹ The Act contemplates assistance being afforded to unemployed women as well as men. Three workrooms for women have been established in London, but the numbers dealt with have been almost a negligible quantity; 451 women were actually given work during the year ending June 30, 1910. Great difficulty has been experienced in securing an adequate outlet for the goods that have been made.

called upon to administer it had to deal.

It will at once be asked what is the exact nature of the disease for which a legislative remedy was sought?

In this connection a distinction must always be drawn between "unemployment" and "the unemployed." To secure a correct diagnosis of so widespread a complaint, the merely individual or personal element must be eliminated. An unemployed casual labourer to-day may well be the product of several different causes.

Permanent irregularity of employment, seasonal depression of his particular trade, geographical shifting of his work, personal or moral causes, such as slackness or drink, may all have made him become a candidate for public assistance; his position may not be due to any one of them alone. It is, therefore, essential that the individual should be merged in the cause, and classification of causes and varieties must be the object of the student.

Unemployment cannot be airily dismissed by the parrot cry of "Unemployable." The evil is too serious and too widely spread for such a superficial and dogmatic interpretation to be of any avail. The real unemployables are a mere fraction of the whole, and to suppose otherwise involves the supposition that all the trade unions (*q.v.*) and distress committees throughout the country have conspired to return as genuine unemployed a vast army of worthless loafers for whom the members of the unions, at any rate, are disbursing considerable sums of money in unemployed pay. The unemployable of to-day may quite reasonably have been the genuine unemployed of yesterday.

To adjust the supply of and demand for labour is the supreme

difficulty that confronts the reformer.

Beveridge,¹ our leading expert on the problem, lays stress on three main factors, namely, seasonal fluctuation, cyclical fluctuation, and the reserve of labour.

Seasonal Fluctuation. It must have been noted that in all trades there is an absence of uniform activity throughout the year. For instance, in the building trade, men are busy in the summer and idle in the winter, while the West End dressmaker may be working night and day during the London Season, and doing little or nothing at all in other months.

This fluctuation of employment does not necessarily imply the actual discharge of men. In the coal mining industry the evil is met by a reduction in the working days. In the building trade the men work (when they can get work) forty-four hours per week in the winter and fifty in the summer.

Exchange of occupation affords a limited palliative—a builder's labourer often finds employment in the winter in some gas works, while a docker who may find himself idle in the summer can then be found engaged in the Kentish hop fields (see HOP AND FRUIT PICKERS).

This adaptability of employment only applies to the unskilled labour market. A skilled trade unionist cannot be expected to be, say, a cabinet maker in April, a bricklayer in August, and a compositor in November; for him the remedy must lie in individual effort and trade union help. Seasonal fluctuation is, without doubt, most severely felt in the unskilled labour market, and can best be dealt with by well-directed organisation, the constant spread of information, and increased

¹ *Unemployment: A Problem of Industry*, by W. H. Beveridge (Longmans).

facilities for dovetailing various employments.

Cyclical Fluctuation. The best method of understanding this is to read the Board of Trade (*q.v.*) statistics of trade **union percentages** of unemployment. These figures demonstrate one fact clearly, that in every department of industrial activity in this country there is a perpetual ebb and flow, alternating periods of expansion and contraction. The causes of these cyclical fluctuations are obscure. They are the common heritage of the industrial life of every country, whether it be Free Trade England or Protectionist America. One economist will give over-production as a reason, another will suggest under-consumption, or an undue saving on the part of the community, as the cause. Neither appear to be adequate.

The Reserve of Labour. The unemployment percentages also disclose one interesting fact that, however much unemployment may fluctuate, it never entirely disappears. The lowest percentage for many years was 2.2 in 1899, which proves that even in the skilled trades there is always an excess of supply over demand. This reserve of labour, which is a constant glut in the casual labour market, is at once the despair of the reformer.

De-casualisation of labour is the only remedy. As an illustration of this, imagine ten centres of casual employment, say, ten shipping wharves in London or Liverpool doing similar work—each wharf employs 50 to 100 men on any one day, say, 50 regular and 50 reserve men. Assume that the average employed at the whole ten wharves ranges from 700 to 800. This means that 800 would be the maximum required if all ten were amalgamated with a practically identical volume of trade. As a matter of

fact, 1,000 men are necessary, because there is no free movement or fluidity of labour between the wharves.

Beveridge defines the policy of de-casualisation as follows:—

"That all the irregular men for each group of similar employers should be taken on from a common centre or exchange, and that this exchange should, so far as possible, concentrate employment upon the smallest number that will suffice for the work of the group as a whole; that successive jobs under the different employers should, as far as possible, be made to go in succession to the same individual, instead of being spread over several men each idle half, or more than half, his time."

It may be asked, what about the men that would be thrown out of at least partial employment under such a scheme? The answer is that the men displaced would have to find work elsewhere. If they did not do so, it would be for one of two reasons: (a) Over-population or (b) inefficiency.

The remedy for the first would be emigration (see COLONISATION), and for the second a training colony.

It must not be supposed that de-casualisation could take place all at once. It is essential that it should only be attempted in times of good trade, when the displaced would have some reasonable chance of obtaining other work. The national system of Labour Exchanges has been established to attempt this work.

The Labour Exchange. The object of a labour exchange is to put into instant communication the employer seeking a workman and the workman seeking employment.

It cannot of itself be expected to relieve distress, but it does help to remove the chronic overstocking of the labour market by the too often

entirely unorganised demands of many employers.

To the Central (Unemployed) Body for London belongs the credit of initiating and working on a uniform plan throughout London a number of these exchanges. The original scheme was completed in January, 1907, when in all twenty-five exchanges were opened, and the system was in full operation throughout the Metropolis until taken over by the Board of Trade on February 1, 1910, under the provisions of the Labour Exchanges Act of 1909.

The original scheme of the Central Body provided that each exchange should be managed by a superintendent and a junior. The whole system was, of course, connected and controlled by a central exchange, which acted as a clearing house for all the other exchanges, which were connected with one another and the central exchange by telephone.

The following facilities for the convenience of both employers and employed were provided wherever possible.

(a) Ample accommodation, with separate doors for entrance and exit, and registration offices, with adequate space for applicants on the ground floor.

(b) Provision for the separate registration of sexes.

(c) A superintendent's private office, and in some cases a committee room, which might be available for use by employers desirous of interviewing applicants.

Trade Unions (q.v.) and Labour Exchanges. The unfair use of these exchanges to prejudice the conduct of trade disputes has always to be guarded against, and in this connection it is gratifying to note the continued growth of friendly relations with trade unions. This has been fostered by public meetings and conferences between trade

unionists and the officials of the exchanges.

In practice the Central Body always adopted the rule of not sending workpeople to vacancies created by a dispute during the continuance of that dispute, and were in the habit of obtaining formal notification of all disputes through the Labour Department of the Board of Trade.

Local Advisory Committees. With a view to securing local knowledge and local interest in each exchange, local advisory committees were established throughout London, consisting of persons appointed by the borough council of the locality, with added representatives of both employers and employees. The principal powers and duties of these committees were to meet at least once a month in order to regulate the detailed working of their particular exchange.

In this way it has been found possible to secure the services of trade union representatives on these committees, and thus danger of friction in this important branch of the work was reduced to a minimum.

The National System of Labour Exchanges. It is too early to express any definite opinion on the success of the national system which has now been extended all over the country. The new system has had the signal advantage of taking over in London a number of exchanges which for some years had been in full working order, and it is not too much to hope that the results may throughout the country, under Government auspices, equal, if not exceed, the excellent results of the work carried out in London by the Central (Unemployed) Body.

It must, however, be clearly realised that a labour exchange is not a temporary expedient for the relief of distress, but an essential

factor in the industrial life of the country, designed to be of benefit to both master and man.

Labour Colonies. The position of labour colonies in this country and their relation to the subject of unemployment has for some time occupied the attention of all those who have been investigating the causes and suggested remedies for the solution of the problem.

They are a comparatively new departure in this country, and hitherto have consisted of two kinds :—

(a) The permanent agricultural or farm colony.

(b) Temporary colonies for carrying out particular pieces of work.

The leading example of the first class is to be found in the Hollesley Bay Labour Colony in Suffolk, and of the second in various works carried out by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London during the last five years. Conspicuous examples of these temporary colonies were a very difficult piece of coast preservation at Fambridge and the construction of the roads in connection with the Garden City at Letchworth.

The Hollesley Bay Labour Colony. This farm colony affords perhaps the best example of the English labour colony that can be found. The colony was first established by the London Unemployed Fund in February, 1905, working under the scheme initiated by Mr. Long, the then President of the Local Government Board. Later on, it was taken over by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, and the estate purchased at a cost of £36,909 10s. 9d. in August, 1906. The total area is 1,300 acres, and when first taken over, 600 acres were arable land, 250 acres heathland, and the remainder consisted of pasture, woodland, and grounds. The buildings upon the estate consist of the College, formerly used as a Colonial

agricultural training establishment, for the sons of gentlemen, with sleeping and domestic accommodation for about 350 men.

The objects and aims of the colony have been threefold :—

(a) To give special work to London men temporarily out of employment through no fault of their own during periods of exceptional distress.

(b) The provision of more continuous work for men who are not only in exceptional need of work, but have already lived upon the land, or show a marked aptitude for country life, with a view to their ultimately obtaining permanent work in the country.

(c) The preparation and training of men and their families for emigration to the Colonies (see COLONISATION), and the establishment of suitable men and families in agricultural or other rural industry in various forms.

All the men who have already passed through the colony, numbering several thousands, have been unemployed married men, with their wives and families resident in London. In order to deal with a somewhat exceptional state of affairs, the remuneration of the men has been fixed as follows :—

They receive board and lodging at the colony, and, in addition, 6d. per week for pocket-money. The Central Unemployed Body has paid weekly, in many cases, through the services of voluntary home visitors in each of the London boroughs, allowances to the families of the men at the rate of 10s. for the wife, 2s. for the first child under fourteen, 1s. 6d. for the second child, and 1s. each for other children under the same age. In no case is a total of more than 17s. 6d. per family paid.

The men on their arrival are often in a very poor condition, both

physically and morally, and this is not surprising when it is remembered that in a large number of cases they have undergone weeks of privation and often semi-starvation, with the consequent mental distress and physical deterioration. The condition of these men after even a few days at the colony shows a surprising improvement. One of the most remarkable features of the work has been the comparative ease with which the men adapt themselves to rural conditions, and this is the more notable when the diversity of their previous occupations in London is taken into account.

The most remarkable feature of the colony which strikes a visitor is perhaps the variety of the work available for the men to do. In addition to the ordinary work of the farm and market gardens, the men can be seen engaged upon the reclamation of a large area of heathland, the raising of sand and gravel, the erection of cottages, sheds, and glass-houses; while a large number find employment in increasing the land available for market gardens and in carrying on the work incidental to the bakery, laundry, joiners', plumbers', wheelwrights', carpenters', blacksmiths', and shoemakers' shops.

Between July 1, 1909, and June 30, 1910, 1,341 men were employed for an average period of 10·3 weeks each. In addition to these, men recommended for emigration were received, and were required to undergo certain tests as to their ability and willingness to do agricultural work. Such men are passed through the dairy, given a course of ploughing, and also any other duties which may, in a small measure, give them an insight into the life they will be expected to live in the Colonies, and at the same time assist them to understand agricultural life. The Colonial authori-

ties have reported that men who have passed through this test have a far better chance of being accepted for work.

The conduct of the men has been uniformly good. A prominent landowner in the district has stated that, although thousands of the men passed over his land every year, he had never received a single complaint concerning them.

The cost per family, consisting of the man, wife, and four children, is now £1 6s. 6d. per week; and as the market garden area, which has been largely increased by the men, comes into full bearing, it is anticipated that this cost will be still further reduced. The added value of the estate as a labour colony since its acquirement has been certified by the official valuers at no less than £6,721 1s. 10d.

It is impossible to overestimate the immense potentialities of usefulness which the Hollesley Bay Labour Colony in its comparatively short career has already demonstrated. It is, however, quite impossible to make colony work of real and permanent benefit unless special colonies, as suggested by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws (see POOR LAW REFORM) are provided for different classes of men and an outlet is provided for those who are trained. It is, of course, abundantly clear that a maximum stay of sixteen weeks, the period allowed at present by the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) is an entirely inadequate period in which to train a colonist. Where men have been permitted by the Local Government Board to settle permanently at the colony and have been allotted cottages, their work is, in many cases, equal to, if it does not exceed, the work performed under ordinary conditions elsewhere.

The Royal Commission on the Poor Laws definitely recommended

the extension of labour colonies, and that the colony system should provide several distinct classes of treatment, either in separate colonies or in distinct divisions of the same colony. The Commission was also strongly in favour of detention colonies under the supervision of the Home Office (*q.v.*). It also recommends that when a man willfully refuses or neglects to maintain himself or his family, or when by his giving way to gambling, drink, or idleness the man or his family become chargeable to the rates, he may be detained for a specified period.

There can be little doubt that in the extension of the colony system in this country upon these or similar lines will be found a very valuable palliative for the disease of unemployment and a permanent amelioration of the lives and the conditions of a very large number of our countrymen who, either here or in the greater England beyond the seas, will be the better able to play a worthy part in the battle of life.

Emigration. (See also COLONISATION.) Emigration in suitable cases is no doubt a help in dealing with the unemployed.

It should be remembered that our Colonies still afford in many cases an almost virgin field upon which to operate. It is often asked why send our best men out of the country? The reply is that, after all, it can only be the best of an indifferent class, who for some reason or other have fallen from the ranks in this country.

In London, during the last five years, 9,050 persons have been emigrated under the provisions of the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905 at a total cost of £71,806 15s., or at a rate of less than £8 per head.

The emigrants have been distributed throughout the Empire

from Newfoundland to Vancouver, Australia, and New Zealand. The proportion of failures has been very small owing to the great care in selection. The essential points considered have been (*a*) the sobriety of adult members of the family, and (*b*) the willingness of the man to undertake steady and continuous work, as shown by his previous record.

It cannot be too strongly urged that emigration is no remedy for the unemployable, and that our Colonial brethren will have just cause of complaint if this important point is ever lost sight of. Emigration in the past has only too often been regarded as an appropriate means of getting rid of those who truly may have been said to have left their country for their country's good.

General Conclusions. The careful student of the problem will no doubt have come to the conclusion that discrimination between the deserving and the undeserving may be difficult, but is not insuperable; that there is no one heroic remedy for the evil, but a series of lesser remedies; that it is impossible to deal with unemployment adequately by merely local municipal effort; that a national system is imperative, together with large and comprehensive schemes of work for those cyclical periods of trade depression, to which reference has already been made.

Our elementary education (*q.v.*) should be increasingly made more technical (see TECHNICAL EDUCATION) in its scope, and an earnest attempt should be made to eradicate the mischief of boy labour (*q.v.*) and those "blind alley" occupations which provide the great army of casuals at the ages of eighteen to twenty (see TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS).

Temporary relief works as a remedy for unemployment are

useless,¹ and training on the land is worthless unless followed by permanent settlement. The casual labourer, having no reserve to fall back upon, becomes a candidate for public assistance so soon as he falls out of work; and for this very reason it will be extremely difficult to formulate any system of unemployment insurance (see *WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD*) to which the casual labourer can be expected to contribute.

The Government should take in hand and control emigration.

Scientific methods are essential and the days of indiscriminate charity gone, let us hope never to return.

"I gave a beggar from my little store
Of well-earned gold. He spent
the shining ore,
And came again and yet again,
still cold
And hungry as before.
I gave a thought, and through
that thought of mine,
He found himself a man, supreme,
divine,
Bold, clothed and crowned with
blessings manifold,
And now he begs no more."

Unemployment Insurance.—(See *TRADE UNIONS and WORKMEN'S INSURANCE ABROAD*.)

Unhealthy Areas.—(See *MUNICIPAL HOUSING*.)

Union of Jewish Women.—(See *JEWISH WOMEN'S WORK*.)

Unions.—(See *GUARDIANS*.)

Universities and University Colleges.—The relationship of the working classes to University

education has attracted a good deal of attention during the opening decade of the twentieth century. "The Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*) which, from small beginnings, has rapidly grown into a powerful and influential society, has voiced the wish of organised labour, and particularly of the younger working class men and women, to learn the best that the universities have to offer in the study of industrial and economic history and other subjects bearing upon the social, economic, and political conditions of a great industrial people." While paying a warm tribute to the value of this movement, the Board of Education (*q.v.*) add a warning in their annual report upon universities and university colleges published in 1910. "One of the gravest dangers," writes the President, "common to this and other forms of specialised adult instruction in this country is the likelihood that it will be called, and come to be thought of as, University education, because it is of an advanced standard and conducted by University teachers. In itself this would not matter, were it not that there is another kind of education to which the experience of every civilised country and of many centuries has applied that name. This other kind of education is only possible when it is based upon a broad preliminary education of wide range, continued up to the threshold of manhood, and when it is conducted under conditions which enable it while in progress to become the main interest and pre-occupation of the student. . . . It is no real advantage to any movement which aims at the higher education of a people to apply to the facilities provided a name which properly belongs to something else, for the wrong use of the word tends to obscure the reality, and so to make it less likely that true

¹ In London, during the last five years, the greatest possible difficulty has been experienced in finding suitable work upon which to place the men. The chief work has been in connection with the London County Council parks, the Royal parks, and certain borough council schemes of work. During the winter of 1909-10 such work was found for 6,119 men at a total cost of £69,364 ss. 5d.

University education will become available for all who are capable of profiting by it." It has seemed desirable to make this quotation at some length as it draws a distinction of considerable practical importance in considering educational matters relating to the working classes. It may be expected that tutorial classes, polytechnics (*q.v.*), institutions similar to the Working Men's College founded by Frederick Denison Maurice, the evening classes of the universities and university colleges, besides those established by local authorities, will be used increasingly and by large numbers of those whose chief occupation is manual labour. Comparatively speaking, the number who can receive university education as the crown of a steady ascent through the elementary (*q.v.*) and secondary (*q.v.*) schools can only be small. But it is important that boys and girls specially gifted should be encouraged to use to the full their talents (see EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES). There may be prejudices on the part of the parents which the social worker can remove. He can also co-operate with the secondary school teacher in securing the best opening for the scholar, with a due recognition of the fact that the final equipment must provide the owner with the means to earn his or her own living. There are, of course, risks, as in the fact that the teacher with university qualifications is not always the one who can impart the knowledge, especially to the scholars of an elementary school, but the path lies open; and the registrars or secretaries of the universities will always send particulars of the courses upon application. A copy of the calendar of the university to which scholars may be expected to go from the neighbourhood, and containing complete information, should be in the public library.

University Extension Lectures.—

The original aim of the University Extension Movement, inaugurated in 1873, was to provide systematic opportunities of non-technical education for adults engaged in industrial callings. It has done useful work, but has not quite reached those whom it was primarily intended to benefit, and that purpose may now be considered to be more nearly accomplished under the auspices of the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*). Courses of extension lectures are organised by the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London, Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds. Full particulars may be obtained from the secretaries of each one. The London courses, which have been directly under the control of the University since 1902, may be given as an example. The purpose of the lectures is defined to be "to provide the means of higher education for persons of all classes and both sexes engaged in the regular occupations of life." The lectures are generally given in the evening, and the courses usually extend only through the Michaelmas and Lent terms. Classes are held after the lectures for more informal instruction. A printed syllabus is provided for the guidance of students who are expected to attend all the lectures, to do work at home each week in connection with the lectures, and to enter for an examination at the end of the course. Certificates and diplomas may be granted according to the results. The chief subjects are English language and literature, general literature, history, economics, and social science, and, as a recent development, local history.

Unregistered Friendly Societies.—(See FRIENDLY SOCIETIES and THRIFT.)

Unsound Food.—Animal food may be unsound or unfit for human consumption on account (1) of

disease, (2) of decomposition, (3) of death otherwise than by killing.

All animals killed for food should be healthy when killed. Jews attribute their well-known healthiness as a race to the precautions they have taken to this end from remote times. The chief diseases for which meat is condemned are general tuberculosis, glanders, anthrax, swine fever, pleuro-pneumonia, septicæmia, cattle plague, and parasitic diseases. Pigs are considered unfit for human food if there are any signs of tubercle, cattle and sheep only when the tubercle is generalised (see ANIMALS' DISEASES). The parts affected should, of course, always be destroyed. When animals have been suffering from any febrile disease at the time of killing, or have died naturally, the flesh quickly decomposes, and poisonous substances called ptomaines are formed.

Decomposing meat is known by the smell, the unnaturally pale, dark, or green colour, and the want of elasticity or resistance to touch. It must be remembered that frozen meat is also of a dark colour, even though quite sound. Bad fish is recognised by the presence of offensive smell and the want of firmness of the substance. Decayed fruit and vegetables are known by the growth of mould, softness, and unhealthy appearance.

All forms of pork and tinned meat and fish are specially liable to decomposition; tinned foods should be eaten as soon as possible after opening.

The medical officer of health (*q.v.*) or sanitary inspector (*q.v.*) may at any time examine food intended to be sold for the food of man. If he considers the same diseased, unsound, or unfit for human consumption, he may seize it and carry it before a justice, who may order

it to be destroyed, and impose a penalty on the owner.

Upholstery.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Urban District Councils.—These are (a) borough councils (*q.v.*) and (b) district councils of the non-municipal urban areas out of London. In this article only the latter class will be dealt with. There were (last return) 813 of these authorities. An urban district council of this class consists of a chairman and councillors, the latter directly elected for three years, the former selected annually by the council from within or without its own body. The chairman is a justice of the peace by virtue of his office. The principal officers of the council are the clerk, treasurer, medical officer of health (*q.v.*), surveyor, and inspector of nuisances. In districts with a population over 20,000, the councils are authorities for elementary education (*q.v.*), and appoint old age pension committees. Some councils appoint distress committees (see UNEMPLOYMENT). Every non-municipal urban district council can supply or aid the supply of higher education, but may not in one year raise more than a penny rate for this purpose. Every such council is also a sanitary authority (*q.v.*) and a highway authority; and they levy the general district rates. Other matters dealt with by these councils as a class are: Sewerage, drainage (*q.v.*), and cleansing; public lighting, and the supply of gas, water, and electricity; infectious hospitals (see ISOLATION HOSPITALS); markets, slaughter-houses, open spaces; baths and wash-houses (*q.v.*); libraries (*q.v.*), museums, art galleries, and schools of science and art (*q.v.*); burial grounds and crematoria; milk premises; fire-engines; housing and town planning (*q.v.*). The annual expenditure of these councils (last return) amounted to

£11,000,000, and their loan debt to £36,000,000. The main sources of the councils' revenue were rates, £6,000,000 (five-sixths being from general district rates); gas, water, tramway, light railway, and electricity undertakings, £2,235,000.

Vacant Land Cultivation Society.

—The name indicates the purpose of this Society, whose operations have been confined to London, where it is estimated that there are 10,000 acres of vacant land. Public bodies and private owners have placed pieces of land at the disposal of the Society who assist unemployed working men to cultivate plots, generally about 20 square rods in area, by growing vegetables. It is calculated that for every £1 spent by the Society, the plot holders have had £5 of useful vegetables. Waste land has been utilized, and plot holders have been encouraged to continue steady work by seeing the result of their labour.

Vacation Schools.—The foreigner visiting one of the large towns of England during the school holidays notices what appears to be a remarkable anomaly. On the one hand are hundreds and thousands of children playing or roaming listlessly in the streets; on the other are the school playgrounds empty and unused. The object of the vacation school is to give some healthy and reasonable recreation (*q.v.*) to the thousands of children who have such small resources at their disposal that they long for the day when the holidays are over. Voluntary workers, led by Mrs. Humphry Ward, have taken the matter up with enthusiasm, and hardly less keen is the interest of the children. The curriculum varies from the ordinary school course. Girls may bring their clothes to mend, boys may do some carpentry, and both will have

opportunity for physical exercises. Story-telling, clay modelling, dancing, Nature study, brush work, and drawing are among the subjects. The schools are much appreciated, and in order that as many as possible may have a part, admission is by ticket, so that the same children cannot attend both morning and afternoon. By the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, local education authorities (*q.v.*) were given power to provide "vacation schools, vacation classes, play centres (see EVENING PLAY CENTRES), or other means of recreation" during the holidays; but no definition is given of a vacation school.

Vaccination.—Dr. Jenner observed that persons who had been accidentally inoculated with vaccinia, a disease of cows then common, were to a large extent protected against an attack of smallpox. In 1796 he accordingly commenced the practice of artificially inoculating persons with lymph taken from the udders of cattle suffering from cow-pox or vaccinia, whence the process was called vaccination. The practice gradually became common, superseding inoculation of smallpox, which was a much more dangerous remedy. By the Vaccination Act of 1840 vaccination was provided at the public expense, and in 1854 it was made compulsory. There were, however, no officials appointed to carry it out, and it was consequently not effectually enforced until after the great epidemic of smallpox in 1871. Since that time the great majority of the population has been vaccinated at least once. Since 1898 it has been deemed prudent to exempt from compulsory vaccination the children of conscientious objectors.

A Royal Commission on Vaccination was appointed, and reported in 1896:—

(1) That vaccination "diminishes the liability to be attacked" by smallpox.

(2) "That it modifies the character of the disease and renders it less fatal and of a less severe type."

(3) "That the protection it affords" "is greatest in the years immediately succeeding the operation." Good protection is given for nine or ten years.

(4) That after this period it rapidly loses its power of preventing an attack, but retains for many years the ability to modify an attack and diminish its virulence.

Vaccination is now usually performed with calf lymph, and not from child to child, as was formerly the practice of public vaccinators. In this way there is no possibility of transferring disease from one child to another.

The dangers of vaccination are the same as those of any other minor operation, or accident. Any scratch of the skin may, in rare cases, give rise to erysipelas and other forms of blood poisoning, if the skin is not scrupulously protected by antiseptic measures. When proper care is taken there is no danger from vaccination.

Re-vaccination is compulsory in Germany, but not in this country. But any person over twelve years of age may be gratuitously vaccinated by the public vaccinator.

Three vaccinations at intervals of ten years are recommended as giving almost permanent protection.

Public vaccination, having been instituted before sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) were generally established, was entrusted to the Poor Law guardians, and still remains in their hands. They appoint the vaccinating officer and the public vaccinator. The duty of the former is to see that every child born is vaccinated; the latter is a medical practitioner, often the district

medical officer, and his duty is to vaccinate (at their own homes, if required) the children referred to him by the public vaccinator under the direction of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*). He is paid 1s. per birth registered in the district and 2s. 6d. to 3s. (at least) per successful vaccination, according as the district is in town or country.

Vaccination, Law of.—Every child born in this country is required by law to be vaccinated, and the parents of a legitimate child or the mother of a bastard, or anyone having the custody of a child, must have it vaccinated unless they have a "conscientious objection." Unless the parents or guardians of the child otherwise desire, the child will be vaccinated by the public vaccinator of the district, who is a registered medical practitioner appointed by the guardians, and does not require any fee. If the parents or guardians can pay the small charge, they can have the child vaccinated by their own medical attendant. If they feel a conscientious objection to vaccination, they may express it by signing a declaration (according to a form prescribed by Act of Parliament) within four months of the birth of the child. A false declaration renders the maker of it liable to a prosecution for perjury, for which offence there is a very heavy penalty.

For the purpose of carrying out the Act, a vaccination officer is appointed by the guardians, whose business it is to inform the public vaccinator of the children requiring vaccinating, and, where necessary, to prosecute offenders against the Act.

Where a child is unfit, the vaccination may be postponed for any length of time up to two months by obtaining a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner or from the public vaccinator. If further

delay is required, a second certificate must be obtained.

Where a child has been vaccinated, the fact must be certified to the public vaccinator, if the operator was not the public vaccinator. If the operator is the public vaccinator, he must give a certificate, free of charge, to parents, and also certify the vaccination to the vaccination officer.

If a child is found unsusceptible to vaccination after three attempts to vaccinate it, and the fact is duly certified by the public vaccinator or the doctor in attendance, further obligation to procure vaccination ceases.

Vagrants.—Among the many difficult problems connected with the Poor Law, the treatment of vagrants claims a foremost place. The English statute book contains legislation extending over a period of more than three centuries embodying efforts to reduce, if not extinguish, their number. The numerous Acts dealing with different classes of persons who may be described as vagrants have caused some confusion as to the meaning of the word. Primarily, the vagrant may be defined as a wanderer, but in common use the word has a wider significance. The description given in the report of a Departmental Committee on vagrancy, published in 1906, may be adopted, since this report remains the most comprehensive consideration of the subject, although, of course, vagrancy received attention from the Poor Law Commission of 1909. The Committee excluded gipsies (*q.v.*), hawkers (*q.v.*), pedlars, hop-pickers (*q.v.*), and fruit pickers and divided vagrants into four classes. There is, first, the *bona fide* working man travelling in search of employment. In times of trade depression, there is no doubt a certain number of genuine working men on tramp, but, as a rule, the

vagrant who is *bona fide* in search of work is extremely rare. "Secondly there are men who are willing to undertake casual labour for a short time, but object to, or are unfit for, any continued work. They are among the first to lose employment on any falling off in trade, and the last to be employed when conditions improve. As a rule, they will never work more than two or three days a week, living the other days by begging (*q.v.*) or cadging. The vagrant of this class is usually a man who has been unable to keep his employment through idleness, want of skill, drinking habits, or general incapacity, or perhaps, through some physical disability. As time goes on he succumbs to the influence of his demoralising mode of life," and falls into the third class—the habitual vagrant. His course of life soon places him within the reach of the law, and enables him to be punished by the Vagrancy Act, 1824, which enacts: "That every person being able wholly or in part to maintain himself or herself, or his or her family, by work or by other means, and wilfully refusing or neglecting so to do, by which refusal he or she, or any of his or her family whom he or she may be legally bound to maintain, shall have become chargeable to any parish, township, or place . . . and every person wandering abroad, or placing himself or herself in any public place, street, highway, court, or passage to beg or gather alms, or causing or procuring or encouraging any child or children so to do (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), shall be deemed an idle and disorderly person within the true intent and meaning of this Act; and it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace to commit such offender (being thereof convicted before him by his own view, or by the confession of such offender, or by the evidence on oath of one or more credible witness or witnesses)

to the House of Correction, there to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one calendar month." Some of the vagrants in this class display great ingenuity in obtaining money. "The fourth class consists of old and infirm persons who wander about to their own hurt; they are 'unemployable,' and crawl from vagrant ward to vagrant ward, only entering the workhouse infirmaries (*q.v.*) when they are compelled to do so; many of them are crazy, all of them live by begging, and give much trouble to police and magistrates." As a rule, the vagrant is not and does not become a perpetrator of the worst forms of crime, but is often guilty of petty offences. The vagrant manages to obtain plenty of nourishment by begging, and is generally considered to be better clad than he used to be, but he lives an unsocial and wretched sort of existence with which he himself is quite contented, and that, perhaps, renders any attempt to improve his condition practically hopeless.

There is considerable diversity among the methods adopted by the different unions for dealing with vagrants, though the orders of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) secure sufficient uniformity to provide a general description. Before a vagrant enters a casual ward (*q.v.*) he has to obtain an order of admission either from a relieving officer (*q.v.*) or from the assistant relieving officer for vagrants. In case of urgent necessity, the master may admit without an order. Generally speaking, the hours of admission are not before 4 p.m. in the winter and 6 p.m. in the summer, nor after 9 p.m. On admission, the vagrant must be searched and, as soon as practicable after, "be cleansed in a bath with water of suitable temperature." The Departmental Committee stated that "when bathing was first introduced, it was found

very effective in diminishing the number of vagrants, but . . . this deterrent effect has passed off, and there is evidence that many tramps resort to wards where the bathing arrangements are good, in order to get the bath." The cellular system is recommended by the Local Government Board, and is a deterrent to the habitual vagrant, who prefers bad accommodation with laxity of control to a well-appointed cell and strict discipline. The variations in the conditions under which the vagrant spends his time in the casual ward extend to the task assigned to him which should act as a deterrent. But the habitual vagrant may become so adept at stone-breaking or oakum picking that his skill nullifies the effect of regulations applicable to all comers. Refusal to perform the allotted task frequently leads the vagrant to prison, and not infrequently he commits some offence either in order to be taken further on his way by being sent to the county gaol, or because he prefers the prison to the casual ward. There is no uniformity in the sentences allotted by magistrates, and the length of it is often only a few days. But even a longer sentence does not trouble the vagrant, who likes his stay in prison. When the punitive machinery is useless, matters have reached an *impasse*; and although in some districts the arrangements have decreased the number of vagrants, legislation has not been passed to adopt the main feature of the Departmental Committee's recommendations—labour colonies (see UNEMPLOYMENT).

Valuation.—*General.* The basis of assessment for the poor rate and most other rates is the valuation list settled by the assessment committee (*q.v.*). Usually the valuation list is prepared by the overseers (*q.v.*). It is deposited for inspection by those interested, before being

formally approved by the assessment committee, and provision is made for the making and hearing of objections, both before and after the list is settled, and has come into force.—Out of London, the valuation list settles the gross estimated rental and the rateable value, and from the latter assessable value is deduced. Gross estimated rental answers to the annual rental value of the property; the rateable value is the net annual value after deducting from gross estimated rental the annual cost of repairs, insurance, etc. There is no fixed rate of deduction for this purpose. For all union and most other purposes the valuation list determines the proportion in which parishes contribute *inter se* for common expenditure. There is no fixed period for revision of the valuation list, which revision may be either partial or general. There is a separate list for each parish. It is not conclusive for purposes of imperial taxation. In London, "gross value" takes the place of gross estimated rental elsewhere, but is practically the same thing. Rateable value is arrived at by deduction from gross value of the annual cost of repairs, insurance, etc.; but here the maximum rates of deduction for various kinds of property are fixed. The valuation list is conclusive, so far as it goes, for purposes of imperial taxation, and accordingly is settled only after reference to the surveyors of taxes. A complete revision of the London valuation lists takes place every five years. *Special Valuations.* Out of London, the contributions of parishes representing county rates are levied by the county councils (*q.v.*) on the parishes, on a special valuation known as the "county rate basis," settled, subject to a right of appeal, by a committee of the county council. It may, and often does, differ greatly from the valuation lists, and it is on the latter that the

ratepayers pay the rates which provide the contributions. For assessing the borough rate upon the parishes in a borough, the borough council, if dissatisfied with the valuation list, may have an independent valuation made. Nevertheless, if the overseers collect the rate, it will be assessed on the occupiers in accordance with the valuation list.

The gross value or gross estimated rental of property in England and Wales (last return) was £267,000,000, London alone giving £54,600,000 of this total. The aggregate rateable value was £215,310,000 (London, £44,935,000), including the value given to property (not legally rateable), in respect of which the Government make payments in lieu of rates. The total assessable value for the purposes of the Agricultural Rates Act was £203,453,000 (London £44,928,000).

Van Boys.—(See **BOY LABOUR.**)

Van-dwellers.—(See **GYPSIES.**)

Ventilation.—The principles of ventilation are based on the facts that fresh air contains 0.4 cub. ft. of carbonic acid per 1,000, that air becomes perceptibly impure when respiration increases this carbonic acid to 0.6, and that a man gives off every hour 0.6 cub. ft. of this gas with other more injurious impurities. It follows from these facts that every adult male, in order to keep the air he inspires from being perceptibly impure, requires to be supplied with 3,000 cub. ft. of fresh air every hour. This amount cannot be supplied in a room without unpleasant draught in cold weather, unless there is 1,000 cub. ft. of air space for each adult in the room. Ventilation is necessary, however large the room. The problem is to supply the requisite amount of fresh air without causing objectionable draught. Natural ventilation depends on the fact that gases of different densities

diffuse into each other, that the warmer gases rise up and on the force of the wind. The principal means of ventilation in houses are the fireplace, the windows, and doors. The fireplace is specially efficient when there is a fire. The air of the room rises up the chimney, and air is drawn in to replace it through windows, doors, and to some extent through walls, floor, and ceiling. The rule should be to keep the windows wide open. If this cannot be borne, they should be opened, as wide as is acceptable, at the top. Venetian blinds sloping inwards and upwards, by directing the incoming air upwards, diminish draught. Roller blinds, when down, admit very little air even with the windows open. When there is no fire in the fireplace open windows are all the more essential. The ventilation of bedrooms is much more important than that of living rooms, owing to the long period persons are shut up in them. Fortunately, it is much easier to keep warm when in bed with a wide open window than when in a sitting-room. There are numerous simple devices for admitting a limited amount of air without causing draught. One of the best is the Hinckes-Bird plan of allowing air only to enter between the two sashes of a window in an upward direction. This is done by raising the lower sash and placing underneath a piece of wood which fills up the opening left below. It is better if the lower beading of the window frame is raised so that the lower sash can be lifted a few inches without admitting any air below.

Other ventilators are Sheringham's valve, Tobin's tube, and perforated bricks. The first is a small flap door which, when opened, directs the air entering upwards. It is usually placed near the top of a room. Tobin's tube, commonly

used in schools and public rooms, is a large tube which connects with an opening through the wall above the floor, and is carried upwards five or six feet.

Boyle's, and other roof ventilators, give exit to the warmer and impure air, and also draw the air from the upper part of a room by the aspirating force of the wind, and may be made so as to admit fresh air at the same time. But it is very difficult to admit a limited amount of cold air into a heated room without causing objectionable draught unless the incoming air is heated. There are various methods of doing this, for which special handbooks must be consulted. (See Dr. Newman's *Health of the State*.)

Ventilation of Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Vermin.—Small, noxious animals are called vermin. Mice are not known to be injurious, but they are a warning to the housewife to see that no scraps are left about and that food is shut up in a secure larder. The most satisfactory way of getting rid of mice is thoroughly to stop up their holes. Poisoning them is objectionable, since they may die under floors and behind wainscots, etc., and cause offensive smells.

Rats, in towns, are frequently, though not always, an indication of faulty drains, and their presence suggests the desirability of testing the house drainage. When this has been remedied and the holes filled up, the rats will probably disappear.

Rats are liable to plague, and their fleas may carry this disease to man. The finding of many dead rats may indicate an epidemic of plague among them.

The principal body vermin or parasites of man are fleas, bugs, and lice. Fleas may cause great irritation of the skin and skin diseases, and may perhaps be the means of

conveying infection from man to man, as does the rat flea from the rat to man. They most frequently breed in dust, and take about three weeks to develop. Fleas are easily got rid of by personal and domestic cleanliness. "Where chamber is swept and wormwood is strown, no flea for his life dare abide to be known."

Bugs cause even greater irritation, but are less easily passed from one person to another. It is said they may be the means of communicating typhus fever (see INFECTIOUS DISEASES). They live chiefly in crevices of walls and furniture, and are more difficult to get rid of than fleas. The eggs are also found in the seams and under the buttons of mattresses. Furniture should be cleansed with a strong disinfectant (as 1 in 20 carbolic), mattresses beaten and cleansed, walls stripped, rooms disinfected with sulphur, and crevices stopped up.

Lice are the most truly parasitic of the vermin. They live in the seams of clothing and the hairy parts of the body. Body lice are found chiefly on persons who seldom change their clothing; they are also found in bedding. Head lice are extremely common, and few elementary school children (girls especially) escape them altogether. Persons infested with vermin should take a hot bath and wash the body well with soap. After drying, the parts of the body affected should be smeared with Stavesacre ointment. The clothing should be boiled or disinfected in a hot air chamber. This process should be repeated twice or thrice on alternate days.

The Cleansing of Persons Act, 1897, enables sanitary authorities (*q.v.*) to provide cleansing stations for verminous persons. Only a small number of authorities have yet done so.

The London County Council

General Powers Act authorises the Metropolitan borough councils (*q.v.*) to cause verminous articles to be cleansed at their own expense (Sec. 19), and to require the owner of an infected house to cleanse it (Sec. 20).

Under the General Powers Act of 1907, the London County Council (*q.v.*) may cause children attending London County Council Schools (see CLEANSING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN) and the inmates of common lodging houses (*q.v.*) to be cleansed (see Secs. 36 and 37). The Children Act, 1908 (Sec. 122) gives similar powers as regards children to all county councils.

Veterans.—Chelsea Royal Hospital was founded in 1682 as an institution for old and disabled soldiers. Greenwich Hospital was established twelve years later with a similar aim for sailors, but ceased to exist for that purpose in 1865, and the funds were converted into out-pensions. The Greenwich pensioners now form one class of the pensions and gratuities granted to petty officers, seamen, and boys in accordance with the King's regulations and Admiralty instructions, of which particulars may be obtained from the Admiralty. The granting of pensions in the Army is entrusted to the Commissioners of Chelsea Hospital, who act in accordance with the regulations laid down in the Pay Warrant. Communications on the subject should be addressed to the War Office.

Vigilance Societies.—(See NATIONAL VIGILANCE ASSOCIATION and RESCUE WORK.)

Village Banks.—(See CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.)

Village Nursing.—(See also HOSPITAL NURSE TRAINING, ROYAL BRITISH NURSES' ASSOCIATION, and SICK ROOM HELPS SOCIETY.) The work of the trained district nurse became so widely appreciated, that those interested in the poor in rural

districts were desirous of obtaining for them also the services of district nurses, the most pressing need being for midwives (*q.v.*) and maternity nurses. In many small villages and in thinly populated areas the raising of sufficient funds for the maintenance of a fully trained nurse was found to be quite impossible; and, for such localities, the training and supply of village and cottage nurses became necessary. The Rural Nursing Association—founded 1888—was the pioneer of County Nursing Associations, the first in Hampshire, being organised in 1891. The committees of the County Associations select and train women as village nurses, usually those of the artisan class and belonging to the county in which they are to work. They are almost always trained as midwives (this being essential in the associations affiliated to Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute (*q.v.*)) and in simple general nursing. The length of the training varies, but usually is from nine to twelve months. In return for the training, the nurses serve the County Association for a given period—generally three years. During this time they receive a fixed salary, usually from £45 to £52 inclusive. They are under the supervision of the county superintendent, who is a fully trained and experienced nurse-midwife. The expense of the training is met partly by grants from the county councils (*q.v.*) for midwifery training, and partly from the funds of the County Association. The Midwives' Act (1902) gave an impetus to County Associations, and there were in 1910 some twenty-eight in England, twenty being affiliated to the Queen's Institute. Associations have also been formed in Scotland and in North and South Wales respectively to provide village nurses for the rural districts in the Principality, where the need for midwives

is very great. Almost simultaneously with the Rural Nursing Association, the Cottage Benefit Nursing Association was founded by Miss Broadwood. (Address: Denison House, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.) The Society is based upon provident lines, subscribers becoming entitled to the services of the "Cottage" nurses. These are women of the village class, trained in maternity and district nursing (*q.v.*), who remain in the patients' houses during the illness, and, in addition to the care of the sick person, are responsible, if necessary, for the domestic work of the household, especially if it is the wife and mother who is ill. Branches of this Society are established in rural districts in England, Scotland, and Wales. In almost all these country Associations there is a combination of voluntary contributions with some provident scheme. In all midwifery cases payment is made by the patients according to their means. In some instances, where the villages are small or isolated, several are combined in one Association, and worked by two or more village nurses living in a central home. They are sent out within a certain radius from the home, and reside in the village where their services are required, working on the usual lines. Each village combining in such an arrangement makes itself responsible for a fixed sum towards the expenditure of the Association. The Maternity Charity and District Nurses' Home, Plaistow, was the pioneer training school for village and cottage nurses. There are now similar centres at Plymouth, Kingswood, Swindon, Tipton, Derby, etc.

The village and cottage nurses are doing excellent work, and fill an important place in the scheme of district nursing as a national work. Their services are being recognised in connection with the

recent developments under legislation, and in some counties they undertake the duties of school nurses (see **CLEANSING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN**, "FOLLOWING UP," and **MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN**), and infant life protection (*q.v.*), visitors under the Children Act (see **CHILDREN'S CHARTER**).

Visitation of Workhouses.—(See **WORKHOUSE GIRLS' AID COMMITTEES**.)

Voluntary Aid Committees.—(See **POOR LAW REFORM**.)

Voluntary Schools.—(See **ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS**.)

Vote.—(See **FRANCHISE**.)

Voting Charities.—(See **CHARITY VOTING REFORM ASSOCIATION**.)

Wage-earning Children Committee.—About 1895 the late Mrs. F. G. Hogg was impressed by the fact that there was a great deal of child employment, and brought the question before the Education Committee of the Women's Industrial Council (*q.v.*), by whom a special committee was appointed to investigate the conditions in fifty-five schools, having a roll of about 52,000 children. The facts thus obtained were outlined in an article by Mrs. Hogg in the *Nineteenth Century* (August, 1897). The committee then organised a deputation to the Education Office, and, as a result, a Parliamentary Return containing fuller particulars (see **CHILD LABOUR**) was issued in June, 1899. Public opinion was aroused, and it was felt desirable to give the committee a separate existence, with additional members, as the Committee on Wage-earning Children, with Miss N. Adler as secretary on Mrs. Hogg's death. The committee was formed of representatives of teaching and educational bodies and of others with intimate knowledge, in a position to further the movement which was directed to

increasing the efficiency and promoting the reform of existing legislation in relation to children working full school time and employed for wages outside school hours. The committee have not only kept alive public interest on the subject and assisted to secure legislation (see **CHILD LABOUR**), but have also stimulated local authorities to do their part by constant agitation in the Press and the dissemination of literature.

Wages Boards.—(See **TRADE BOARDS**.)

Waifs and Strays.—From the beginning of work among children, whether that work has been religious or philanthropic, there has been an "outside child"—a child, typical of a class of childhood that has been missed. The reasons are several. Chief, perhaps, is that of extreme poverty, which has ruled out many from benefits for which payment, however meagre, has to be made; and the same disadvantage, working in another way, accounts for many a child avoiding even those benefits that are supplied freely and without charge. The poor child is pathetically sensitive about his rags and hunger, when in the presence of better clothed and fed children, and all the sympathy in the world will not coax him into their company on the regular occasions provided by Sunday schools, Bands of Hope, lads' brigades, and so forth. On the other hand, there is a hesitancy on the part of those in charge about making a special bid for the poorest, for parents' prejudices and right precautions must not be overlooked, and there is no reason for sacrificing one class to another. Quite frequently the church in the slum is attended not by the slum population, but by the artisan class living not far away, yet beyond the slum's area, and at the lowest—in social terminology—the

children are the children of the respectable poor, and not the children of the degraded classes.

Again, the outside child is placed outside by his parents. He is not "brought up" in any sense; he begins in the gutter, his playground from the days of his infancy, and his home conditions conspire to keep him there. His parents find him an amusement; they find him useful as a vent for their ill-temper; they find him an excellent excuse for quarrelling with their neighbours. In a crude, animal way, perhaps, they love him; but it never occurs to them to desire a respectable, creditable life for him. The outside child owes nothing of any good he may achieve to his parentage.

He is a rough, semi-wild type of child, acquainted with all the worst forms of wickedness, taught from his birth lessons of vice and coarseness, of evil speaking and living, taught to rebel against discipline and to live by his wits. With all the routine of free education and all the wealth of benevolent and religious effort that has been and continues to be expended in London's dark places, as in other great centres, that kind of child continues to exist.

It was the outside child, missed from one cause or another, largely because of the small fee, by the national schools, who aroused the sympathy, and set to work the compassionate thought of the good Lord Shaftesbury, resulting in the establishment of ragged schools. The fact that the work attracted some of the keenest and shrewdest minds among the younger men of education and position of the time, and kept them employed, indicated that Lord Shaftesbury's genius had hit upon a work that was not only to be immediately beneficial to those who received its ministrations, but was to be the beginning

of great things and to assume national significance.

Dr. Barnardo, one of the young men referred to, devoting his leisure in the East End to the poorest of slum children, set himself through the ragged school to conquer the education difficulty, and in so doing came against another difficulty, that of feeding and clothing and housing these children. He discovered that there was not only an outside child educationally and spiritually, but in respect of the bare necessities of life also. True, there were institutions for orphans and the homeless, but the child he was concerned about was an outside child to these, for it could not fulfil the conditions of admission; and so was founded that great organisation of homes whose boast is that no needy child has been refused admission. Other workers also followed the ray of light which the Ragged School movement threw amid the darkness of the slums and of suffering childhood, and found new work to do.

The superintendent of a Sunday school in a poor parish was the next to embark on a new enterprise for the "outside child." He had been brought face to face with this fact: that a family who had attended his school and had always been poor, was thrown into the depths of poverty by the death of the father; that with natural pride the mother refused to receive Poor Law relief; that consequent upon their poverty the children were sinking to begging their bread, and to the hard circumstances of our streets. There were two courses open to the superintendent: either to obtain admission for the children into a Church orphanage, and pay £12 to £15 per annum for each child's maintenance, or to seek a place for them in some unsectarian orphanage, sacrificing the Church teaching in which the

children had been instructed. The Church had no central organisation or society to which clergymen and others could refer cases of this kind—of children of the Church thrown into direst want, and needing a home and the necessities of life. The lack of the Church in this respect was supplied, and the Rev. E. de M. Rudolf began his wonderful work of the Church of England Waifs' and Strays' Society.

Two of these Societies take the outside child away from the bad influences of the slum and put him in a clean and healthy atmosphere ; the third takes the atmosphere to the child, and endeavours to create, in the very slum itself, a centre of Christian light and of the best moral influence. Dr. Barnardo's Homes have a power that extends throughout the world. Few are ignorant of the justly proud boast of the "ever open door." These institutions take from the distorting influence of the slum the material of which men and women are made, and in the face of heredity and of environment prove in fact that men and women can be made of the wastrel boys and girls, of whom nearly 4,000 are rescued every year. A home, a schooling, a moral training, a fitting for the duties of life—these are provided for thousands of children. Some stay in England ; some go to Canada and other Colonies, and are welcomed as the type of youth and maiden that is wanted in the new countries (see COLONISATION). Anyone who has visited these Homes, or has witnessed the display which is given from time to time in the Albert Hall to illustrate their many-sided work, cannot fail to have been amazed at the nature of the provision made for the inmates, and to have felt some desire to share in this work of bringing little children from the gutter to healthy home life and to happiness.

The second of the three societies is the Church of England Waifs' and Strays' Society, an official Church of England organisation. In a comparatively short time of less than thirty years, this has become the second largest organisation of its kind in the country. Every year it finds permanent homes for 900 children, and it has in its care at one time over 4,150 little ones. The system favours many small homes rather than a few monster institutions, and there are 106 of these Homes in England and Wales, and two emigration homes in Canada. Over 18,000 children have been rescued from want and cruelty during twenty-nine years ; yet only the fringe of the problem is touched by this Society, and many other little ones await the kindly provision that only lack of funds withholds from them.

For a variety of reasons, the majority of "outside" children must remain, at any rate during childhood, in their slum surroundings ; and it is for these that the Ragged School Union carries on the greatest part of its many-sided work.

A class of child that has perforce been ranked among the outside children is the invalid and the cripple. The loneliness and suffering of this kind of child in the poor places of London is more than description can convey. The cripple is useless ; the scanty family exchequer is depleted rather than enlarged by him ; he is, and will probably always be a burden ; and instead of a larger measure of gentleness and care being given to him, the contrary is often the case.

Until a very few years ago, these cripples were hidden away out of sight and left to their fate. A special organisation was set on foot by the Ragged School Union, as a result of which some 7,000 crippled

children have been registered, and are systematically visited in their homes, and provided with surgical instruments where necessary, medical and other expert care, and such amusements and other pleasures as make glad the hearts of lonely and suffering children.

The Ragged School Union has holiday homes in several seaside and country places, to which sickly children from the poorest districts are sent for at least a fortnight in the fresh air; and for the normal child, also, holidays are provided, both for a single day at a time and for longer periods.

With changing needs the Ragged School Union has broadened its work at different periods in the direction of elementary education, the feeding and clothing of needy children, the material care of cripples, the encouragement of industry and thrift and institutions for adults.

There is to-day as wide a scope as ever for the worker among children. The kinds of work it provides may change with changing conditions, but there is more work still to be done than there are workers to do it.

Until the State completes the work that it has begun on the material and educational side, the 140 centres of mission and social work directed by and affiliated to the Ragged School Union, and the 5,000 voluntary workers must continue to carry on their varied programme of service. The children have their Sunday schools and Bible classes and Bands of Hope; they have also their Guilds of Play, youths' and girls' clubs, country holidays, Christmas and other treats, gymnasiums, boys' and girls' brigades, *crèches*, free breakfasts, clothing clubs, and thrift encouragements, with a variety of institutions for parents also.

The condition of London's slum

child cannot adequately be described, and the most vivid account does not create an accurate imagination of it. The children and the life they live must be known at first hand to be known at all. It cannot be viewed from the railway train that, in entering the London stations from pleasant suburban districts, passes above the roofs of the slum houses. It cannot be seen from the main thoroughfares, even when they are the Whitechapel Road or the Borough or Walworth Road. It can be seen only on the spot, in the dark and hidden places of the poorest areas, and the poignancy of the experience will be lost unless acquaintance is renewed again and again. Work among the children of the slums can be of little avail if taken up as a hobby; success is only attained by approaching the task as a serious life work, second only to the necessity of earning one's daily bread. The field is wide, and offers work for a variety of talents—for men and women of organising ability, of intellect, of practical imagination, or religious fervour, of shrewd common sense and knowledge of affairs, of artistic gifts—above all, of patience, real sympathy, and immovable faith. For all of these there is scope in the three great institutions—as in many others—that have been more particularly dealt with here.

Waistcoat-making.—(See SWEATED INDUSTRIES EXHIBITION.)

Watch-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Waterproof-making.—(See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Water Supply.—A pure water supply is a primary necessity of good health. The principal diseases conveyed by impure water are cholera (now rare in England), and enteric or typhoid fever. Excess of salts in water may cause dyspepsia and diarrhoea. Water is only

absolutely safe when it has been sterilized, and when one is obliged to drink a water of doubtful quality it should always be boiled. The supplies of large towns in this country can generally be relied on. Although London takes most of its water from two rivers which are necessarily more or less polluted, the water is so purified before delivery by storage and filtration, that there is no reason to think it ever produces disease. Most domestic filters are valueless and even injurious; the Pasteur-Chamberland porcelain is the only one that can be depended on as having stood the test of experience. This filter is sometimes fixed to taps, and where the pressure is sufficient a good supply of pure water is thus obtained. All filters require to be frequently sterilised by boiling.

The most suspicious water is that which comes from shallow wells. Deep wells in the chalk, on the other hand, usually give very pure, though hard, water. The transparency of water is no guarantee of its purity. A highly contaminated supply may be perfectly clear and pleasant to the taste. It is always necessary, in country districts, to know that the source of the water is properly protected and uncontaminated.

Hard water requires more soap to form a lather, and is, consequently, wasteful; but it is not injurious to the body, though in certain morbid conditions soft water may be preferable. Storage cisterns should be thoroughly cleansed every year, and protected by a close-fitting cover.

(For further information, see *Water and Its Purification*, by S. Rider).

Wheel-making. — (See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

White Lists. — (See PREFERENTIAL DEALING.)

Wholesale Clothing. — (See TRADES FOR GIRLS.)

Whooping Cough. — (See INFECTIOUS DISEASES.)

Widows. — The distress of widows who are left unprovided for appeals to everyone, but a knowledge of the most effective ways of helping them is not so widespread, and many of them, for want of wise advice and the right assistance at the outset, have to face much more privation and hardship than need really be their fate.

In nearly all cases the husband has been insured for ten or twenty pounds, and one may be able, if one takes the matter in hand at once, to persuade the widow not to spend the whole amount on the funeral and on mourning, but to keep some of the money over for immediate necessities. There are also one or two societies in London which exist to give pecuniary help during the first few weeks of widowhood, *e.g.*, (1) the Widows' Friend Society, 28, Basinghall Street, E.C. (limit of operations a radius of about four miles from St. Paul's); (2) Society for the Relief of Distressed Widows, 32, Sackville Street, W. (relief limited to widows within a certain radius of the office). Grants made not exceeding £2. Application must be made within the first month of widowhood. A subscriber's recommendation is needed.

If a widow is no longer able, through age or infirmity, to earn her living, it may be that her children will be able between them to provide for her maintenance; they are legally liable to do so, and if they fail to do their duty, the guardians can compel them to contribute to her support in proportion to their means if she becomes chargeable to the Poor Law. Many societies grant pensions to aged widows; the minimum age is usually sixty. There are also societies which give pensions or other

forms of help to the widows of members of particular professions, such as the clergy, doctors, and lawyers. Details as to such societies can be found in such books as *The Annual Charities' Register and Digest* (q.v.), published by the Charity Organisation Society (q.v.), or on inquiry at any office of that society. The Freemasons also help the widows of their members largely.

Younger widows, with or without children, have to take the place of the bread-winner, and too often join the ranks of the underpaid and untrained female worker. Efforts should be made to train a widow for better paid work, such as maternity or sick nursing, if she is of a superior class; if of a lower class, she may still be trained for skilled work, such as clear-starching, fine ironing, or upholstering, by which she will be able to earn more than by mere charring or plain needlework. Advice should be sought from the Women's Industrial Council (q.v.), with which there is connected the Association of Trained Charwomen (q.v.). Information as to higher class employment may be obtained from the Central Bureau for the Employment of Women (q.v.).

It is rarely wise to start a widow with a mangle, a small shop, or a boarding-house, though one is often urged to do so. In London, at any rate, the number of small boarding-houses is greatly in excess of the demand. Small shops also frequently lead to the loss of a widow's small capital, because the neighbourhood is already too full of such shops, and unless a woman has had previous experience of buying and selling and of keeping accounts she will probably be unable to manage the business successfully in any case. Money is often wasted in paying inflated prices for the purchase of stock and good-will, and the real

value of the business should, at any rate, be first carefully investigated by someone with business experience.

The children of a widow are frequently more in number than she can expect to be able to support even if put in the way of earning comparatively good wages. In most unions the Poor Law guardians will grant her outdoor relief (q.v.) to supplement her earnings (see WOMEN WITH CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW), but the allowance is usually very small, and difficulties will frequently arise as to the care and control of the children while the mother is away at work, and even if she obtains work to do at home, she will have little time for house-keeping and for taking proper care of a large number of children as well. It may be necessary, therefore, to persuade her to part with some of the children for a time, and much patience is often required before she will agree to do this. Sometimes relatives will agree to take one or more of the children, and the intervention of an outsider may bring this about in cases where the widow herself does not like to suggest it to them. Some of the children may, as an alternative, be got into orphanages (q.v.), or the guardians may be asked to take some of them into their Poor Law schools (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW), leaving the mother with only one or two to support out of her earnings. In these cases the mother retains full right over the children and can see them at regular intervals; and when they leave they can, of course, return home to help her with their wages. For suitable women, situations in domestic service in houses where they can have one child to live with them can usually be found by means of advertisement.

Wife, -- (See HUSBAND AND WIFE.)

Wig-making.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.)

Wills.—The following points should be borne in mind in making a will: (1) Any person over twenty-one years of age is entitled to dispose of his or her property by will; (2) a will is revoked by marriage; (3) a will must be in writing, and must be signed at the foot by the testator in the presence of two witnesses, who must sign their names; (4) if the testator is incapable of signing his will, it may be signed with his name by some other person: it should then be read to and acknowledged by the testator in the presence of two witnesses; (5) a gift to a witness who attests the will or to his or her wife or husband is void (see HUSBAND AND WIFE); (6) if any erasures are made before the testator signs the will, he and the attesting witnesses should put their names or initials opposite the place of such erasure; (7) legal language is not necessary in a will, and should be studiously avoided by the layman.

Women Factory Inspectors.—(See FACTORY INSPECTORS.)

Women in Factories.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN.)

Women in Social Work.—(See also SOCIAL WORKER, TRAINING OF.) Nothing is more remarkable in the history of social progress during the last fifty years than the increase in the part undertaken by women. Not only is there an increase in amount of work done, but there has been a change in the whole status of the woman worker. The trained work of the expert, whose life is often given to the cause, has succeeded to the well-meant, but often vague and ineffective efforts of the "Lady Bountiful." There is still, however, room for several different kinds of work, which, broadly speaking, fall under these divisions:—

I. PUBLIC SERVICE: (1) *Paid*,

(a) under the central Government, (b) under the local authorities; (2) *Unpaid*, (a) elected, (b) appointed.

II. PROFESSIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL WORK: of various kinds, for which training is required, full time is necessary, and for which a salary or its equivalent is given.

III. VOLUNTARY: Part time occupations, principally falling under (a) Secretarial and organising, (b) visiting and research, (c) educational.

I. PUBLIC SERVICE. (1) *Paid Work.* (a) *Under Central Government.* Appointments include women factory inspectors (*q.v.*) (Home Office), who are nominated by the Home Secretary, and appointed after competitive examination; women school sub-inspectors (Board of Education), for whom a good degree is essential; and boarding-out (*q.v.*) inspectors for Poor Law children (Local Government Board), requiring knowledge of sick nursing, children's diseases, and conditions of life among the poor. All the above posts are strictly limited in number, and applicants must be of recognised social standing, of the highest general education, with special qualifications of experience and technical knowledge, and must have robust health. The salaries are good, ranging from £150 to £400, according to seniority, etc.

(b) *Under the Local Authorities.* Under the London County Council (*q.v.*) especially, Women Inspectors are appointed to see that the regulations of the Shop Hours' Act (see SHOPS) are carried out, also visitors under the Infant Life Protection (*q.v.*) Act. The duties of the former are allied to those of the factory inspector, of the latter to those of the boarding-out inspector. Salaries vary from £100 to £150. The appointment of women sanitary inspectors (*q.v.*) is on the increase both in London and in the provinces, and the work often includes

the visiting of mothers and infants under the Notification of Births (*q.v.*) Act, where it has been adopted, or the superintendence and organisation of such visiting by health visitors (*q.v.*) (paid or honorary). Health visitors (paid) perform very similar duties, but they have not the official status of sanitary inspectors. Salaries vary from £70 to £200, the higher rate of pay being received by fully qualified inspectors only, who often possess medical qualifications. A few women have been appointed as medical officers of health (*q.v.*) or as assistants.

Under the local Poor Law authorities (Local Government Board), there are openings for women as matrons of workhouses (see WORKHOUSE MATRONS), of children's homes (see CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW) (cottage or scattered), as industrial trainers or governesses in the children's departments of workhouses, and as matrons or nurses in Poor Law infirmaries (*q.v.*). It is to be regretted that educated women have not been encouraged to qualify for these posts. It is very important work, and a much higher standard might be obtained in the Poor Law service if the conditions were altered so as to attract the higher grades of women.

To prisons, reformatories (see HOME OFFICE SCHOOLS), and asylums the same remarks apply, though lately a strong effort has been made to raise the status of the mental attendant or asylum nurse, and such a career is now looked upon as suitable for an educated woman. The post of prison matron or warder, unfortunately, is still rarely, if ever, filled by those who look upon the work as a "vocation," though the care of prisoners, (*q.v.*), as well as of the sick, is one of the "corporate acts of mercy." As to reformatories and prisons, we have much to learn from America.

New posts for women are those of children's care committee (*q.v.*) visitor (appointed by local education authorities (*q.v.*), notably the London County Council (*q.v.*)) to supervise the working of the Provision of Meals Act (see FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN), and of cross visitor (most unfortunate name!), appointed by boards of guardians to superintend children boarded out *within* the union (see BOARDING OUT). To these must be added school medical officers (see SCHOOL DOCTORS) (often women) who are responsible for the medical inspection of school children (*q.v.*), and school nurses, who care for their health and cleanliness (see "FOLLOWING UP"). The salaries for these various new posts vary from £65 at the lowest to a probable maximum of about £250 for those medically qualified.

The practice of appointing a woman as Poor Law relieving officer (*q.v.*), or as assistant, is happily on the increase; and a few probation officers (*q.v.*), appointed under the provisions of the Children Act of 1908, are women, though at present men are the majority. A woman assistant might very usefully be appointed to deal with girls and young women.

(2) *Unpaid Work.* (a) *Elected.* Since 1907 women have been eligible to sit on local elected bodies, such as county councils (*q.v.*), and borough and urban district, rural district, and parish councils (*q.v.*), and Poor Law guardians. Such women must, however, have an electoral qualification. Several women have also been elected as mayors. It is hardly necessary to emphasise the excellent work women can do, and are doing, on these bodies, especially in connection with public health and morals, education, child life and Poor Law relief.

(b) *Appointed.* Useful work can

be done by a leisured woman in the country as secretary or as visitor on a voluntary boarding out (*q.v.*) committee, for the supervision of Poor Law children boarded out among cottage people. Work for children can also be done on the children's care committees (already mentioned), and as school managers (*q.v.*), especially of the special schools (*q.v.*) for defective children (including blind (*q.v.*), deaf (*q.v.*), cripples (*q.v.*), feeble-minded (*q.v.*), etc.), after-care (*q.v.*) associations in connection with these special schools, and with lunatic asylums (*q.v.*). Inebriate reformatories (*q.v.*) also provide difficult but necessary and intensely interesting work for those who can do it, as also do discharged prisoners' aid (*q.v.*) committees. Any of the work in this section (*b*) can be undertaken by women living at home, and it is only semi-"official."

II. PROFESSIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL WORK. The Women's Settlements—University or otherwise—provide valuable training for social workers; a few special workers are occasionally paid, but most pay for board. The position of head of one of the larger settlements (*q.v.*) is, however, one of great responsibility and importance. Training with possibility of future professional employment can also be obtained under the Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), (see SOCIAL WORKER, TRAINING OF), and in connection with local social guilds and health societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATION). Secretarial and organising work is usually combined with visiting and relief work. Other organisations employing women professionally in social work are the Salvation Army (*q.v.*), Church Army (*q.v.*), and many rescue associations. Occasionally posts can be obtained under the Girls' Friendly Society (*q.v.*), Y.W.C.A. (*q.v.*), Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young

Servants (*q.v.*), or other guilds or societies for girls, or women as secretaries, organising workers, or superintendents of girls' clubs (*q.v.*), and in a few cases in temperance work.

Social work is done by women who have a special religious vocation as sisters or as deaconesses, life being lived by rule, usually in a community; Bible women and mission women also do much work among the poor. The "Grey ladies," organised in several dioceses, seem to stand half-way between Settlement workers and deaconesses.

In connection with some hospitals, there is the post of hospital almoner (see HOSPITALS); an educated woman is required who is expected to investigate all new cases, visit the patients in their homes, etc. The salary is usually about £100 a year. As matrons, sisters, or nurses in hospitals (*q.v.*), and as district nurses (see DISTRICT NURSING) or midwives (*q.v.*), some of the best of women's work for social welfare is done. A new post is that of county superintendent or inspector of midwives and other district nurses. To be matron of a convalescent home, a Girls' Friendly Society or Y.W.C.A. lodge, girls' or boys' home, orphanage (see ORPHANAGES), home for epileptics (*q.v.*) or feeble-minded (see HOMES AND COLONIES FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED), or rescue home or refuge (see RESCUE WORK), needs training and much tact and special experience, but there are very happy openings here for the right woman. In some cases, no payment is given beyond board, lodging, and laundry, but in good institutions a fair salary can often be obtained by qualified women.

Paid posts or occasional paid work can also be obtained under such organisations as the Evening Play Centres (*q.v.*), the Invalid Children's Aid Association (*q.v.*),

Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*), and other societies for social and philanthropic work. All such agencies need permanent paid secretaries, and the salaries paid by philanthropic societies to educated women (other than clerks) for full time secretarial work vary from the miserable pittance of £30 or £40 a year up to £200 or more for really capable women.

Other occupations are those of rent collecting (see LADY RENT COLLECTORS) (work initiated by Miss Octavia Hill); lecturing on hygienic and social subjects might be added, and the superintending of *crèches* (see DAY NURSERIES), schools for mothers (*q.v.*), and infants' milk depôts (*q.v.*).

III. The field of VOLUNTARY WORK for women is so wide and its activities so well known, that it is only necessary to give a bare outline of the various branches (*a*): *Secretarial and Organising*. The lady hon. secretary is ubiquitous, and the value of her work varies in proportion to her realization of the necessity for doing honorary work as thoroughly and conscientiously as if she were paid for it. The list of societies already given in Section II need not be repeated here. All these organisations need permanent voluntary secretarial work locally, as well as occasionally in their central offices. To these might be added temperance bands of hope, the Girls' Diocesan Association, housing and town planning (*q.v.*) associations, nursing associations, benefit and provident clubs.

(*b*) Besides ordinary *Parochial District Visiting* (see DISTRICT VISITING), there is much visiting to be done in connection with most social work for women and children, notably in such organisations as the after-care (*q.v.*) associations for defective children, or the insane,

consumptives, inebriates (*q.v.*), prisoners (*q.v.*), and young people on probation (see PROBATION OFFICERS). The National Association for Promoting the Welfare of the Feeble-minded (*q.v.*) and a similar society for the prevention of consumption (*q.v.*) both need voluntary helpers. Other active work can be done in connection with Evening Play Centres (*q.v.*) and clubs of all sorts, Children's Country Holiday Funds, schools for mothers (*q.v.*), and infants' consultations.

Industrial and research work is done by women in connection with the Women's Trade Union League (*q.v.*), Women's Industrial Council (*q.v.*), National Anti-Sweating League (*q.v.*), Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association (*q.v.*), and other similar organisations, and through the National Union of Women Workers (*q.v.*), which also embraces many other activities. Social research work comes into the scope also of the Christian Social Union (*q.v.*), the Eugenics (*q.v.*) Education Society, the Fabian Society, National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution, British Institute of Social Service (*q.v.*), National League for Physical Education and Improvement (*q.v.*), Charity Organisation Society (*q.v.*), Girls' Diocesan Association, women's settlements (*q.v.*), and local health societies (see SANITARY AND HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS) and neighbourhood guilds.

Rescue Work (*q.v.*) is naturally done chiefly by women, and the Association for the care of friendless girls and many other reformatory agencies offer scope for much local voluntary work for women.

(*c*) Under *Educational Work* comes work as teacher or superintendent in Sunday schools (*q.v.*), or in evening industrial training, hygiene, or domestic economy (*q.v.*),

physical drill (see PHYSICAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS) or improvement classes, and voluntary lecturers on infant care, in connection with schools for mothers (*q.v.*), etc., and voluntary health visitors (see HEALTH VISITING) may also be included. Much of the work done in the Girls' Friendly Society, and other societies is also educational.

In connection with the Brabazon Employment Society (*q.v.*), women can go to the workhouses (*q.v.*) and teach the non-able-bodied paupers some simple employments, such as basket-making, mat-weaving, etc., to prevent the time hanging so heavily on the hands of the old and infirm.

In the cripples' guilds (see CRIPPLES), voluntary teachers help to teach the children to do remunerative work, and assist in the sale of it, in visiting the children, etc.

Details as to the work of each society or branch of work can be found elsewhere; enough has been said to show how great a scope there is both for the professional and the voluntary worker. The choice is so great as to be almost bewildering, but it is well to choose that which is most congenial, for a woman always does best the work which she really loves.

Women with Children under the Poor Law.—(See also CHILDREN UNDER THE POOR LAW and WIDOWS.) The duty of a board of guardians towards this class of people is of extreme importance, because it involves much the largest number of children in receipt of relief of any kind; children who, if not educated in a thorough manner, will ultimately, as adults, come again upon the rates of the parish.

Three general principles may be taken for granted:—

(1) That it is true economy to spend money on these children rather than to deal with them

inadequately, since prevention is better than cure.

(2) That where circumstances admit, the home should be preserved and not broken up.

(3) That relief should take the form of money and not kind. Nearly every board of guardians in granting out-relief (*q.v.*) to these cases is guided by an arbitrary relief scale of its own, allowing, *e.g.*, 2s. for the first child and 1s. 6d. for the others. Experience shows that this tends to become stereotyped—no account is taken of the fact that children grow and become more expensive as they get older, and, except in very bad cases, no differentiation is made between the various classes of people who come under this one heading. The *cause* of the necessity must be determined in each case, and the *result* of the relief given gauged.

Amongst the different causes of the necessity of children under this general classification are:—

- (a) Death of father.
- (b) Desertion of father.
- (c) Imprisonment (temporarily or for a long period) of father.
- (d) Absence of father abroad.
- (e) Neglect of father to maintain under bastardy order.
- (f) Chronic illness of father—1. infectious, *e.g.*, consumption; 2. non-infectious, *e.g.*, paralysis.

Difference must also be made between those families in which the following is the case:—

- (a) Mother able to work—1. at home; 2. away from home.
- (b) Mother unable to work at all on account of infant.
- (c) Mother of bad character.
- (d) Mother with male lodgers and suspected bad influence.
- (e) Mother of good character.

Generally speaking, it has been the practice of boards throughout the kingdom to treat all as of one class, not to alter the relief when once given, and entirely to ignore the

problem of the employment to which these children go on leaving school.

Two alternatives seem possible to meet the case successfully:—

1. The appointment of an official staff. This, however, means increased expenditure, and with however sympathetic a staff, visits on their part regarded as of an official nature.

2. The appointment of a voluntary ladies' committee, whose duties should be:—

(a) Regularly to visit all such cases on out-relief in the union.

(b) To bring the children concerned in touch with the school care committees (see CHILDREN'S CARE COMMITTEES) and juvenile advisory committees.

(c) To report fully to the board on each case at stated intervals, recommending an increase or decrease in the amount of relief given as may needs be, or in certain cases that the woman be offered the house and the children dealt with by the relief system of the parish.

Women's Imperial Health Association (3, Princes' Street, Hanover Square, W.).—This Association was founded, in 1908, in order to promote the following objects:—

(1) The instruction of women in the elementary principles of hygiene and in the care and nurture of children.

(2) The organisation of meetings, at which instruction may be given with a view to raising the health standard of the nation.

(3) The establishment of local branches where lecturers may give simple teaching on all subjects connected with the health of mothers and children.

(4) The conducting of health caravan tours through the villages and towns of England, in order to increase amongst girls and women a knowledge of the principles of health.

(5) To establish local branches throughout the Empire.

(6) To co-operate with other similar societies.

(7) To publish leaflets dealing with health.

(8) To establish a central bureau of information on questions concerning health.

(9) To watch legislation on various questions concerning women and children.

With such objects as these the Association has carried on vigorous work. The health caravans have met with considerable success, as is shown in the Association's first annual report. The leaflets also are simple and direct, and can easily be understood by the uneducated. The social worker will find the lectures and "Talks" organised by the Association of no little value in teaching mothers and girls their duties in regard to the preservation of health.

Women's Industrial Council (7, John Street, Adelphi, Strand, W.C.). (See also WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE.)—This Council grew out of the Women's Trade Union Association, and was founded in 1894 "to watch over the interests of women engaged in trades and over all industrial matters which concern women." It investigates the facts of women's work, and collects and publishes information about the conditions of their employment. It scrutinises Parliamentary Bills, official reports, and legal and statistical matters of various kinds, as they bear upon the industrial interests of women. It promotes such petitions and deputations as may seem desirable in connection with legislation or local government. It reports, after due inquiry, to the proper authorities, breaches of the Factory and Public Health Acts. It educates industrial workers in social questions, economics, and legislation affecting their trades or interests. It

provides for societies and institutions lecturers on subjects of social and industrial interest. It publishes leaflets and pamphlets and a quarterly organ, the *Women's Industrial News*. It deals with the problems connected with unemployed women dependent on their own earnings. It calls attention to the need for the technical and trade training of girls and also of their training to become children's nurses.

It is evident from this brief summary of its work, that the Council is engaged in a great number of varied and useful tasks. Its main work is done by means of committees, which deal with the different departments of its activity. Most important of these is the Investigation Committee, which undertakes the visitation, with systematised inquiry, of employers, factories, workshops, home-workers, employees, trade union and other officials. The results of the investigations are published in reports. Another important committee deals with education. Much valuable work was done by this committee on the subject of wage-earning school children (*q.v.*). This committee has also drawn attention to the increasing need of day trade schools and technical education (*q.v.*) for girls. It has also published a series of 1d. pamphlets on the *Labour Laws for Women* in various countries. Other organisations connected with the Council are the Association of Trained Charwomen (*q.v.*), and Domestic Workers' Association.

Women's Trade Union League.—(See also WOMEN'S INDUSTRIAL COUNCIL.) This League consists of the women members of various trade unions (*q.v.*), and it is supported by the contributions of affiliated societies and the subscriptions of individual sympathisers. It may be said to have for its objects: (1) The organisation, where

necessary, of new trade unions among women; (2) the strengthening of existing women's unions; (3) the admission of women into men's unions; (4) the representation of specific grievances among women trade unionists to Parliamentary committees and Government authorities; (5) the granting of legal advice to members in difficulties, especially with respect to compensation for injuries, wrongful dismissal, and wages withheld.

The chairman is Miss Gertrude Tuckwell, the secretary Miss Mary Macarthur. The offices are at 34, Mecklenbergh Square, W.C., and the League has now nearly 130 societies affiliated to it. The National Federation of Women Workers was formed by the Women's Trade Union League in 1906, and consists of unions of small groups of women workers.

When, in 1874, the first successful attempt was made to organise English women engaged in industry, public opinion was averse to trade unionism in any form, consequently the female workers in the book-binding trade banded themselves together under the title of the Women's Protective and Provident League to protect their interests and to provide assistance for themselves in sickness. Not until 1889 was the word "Protective" dropped, and the present title, the Women's Trade Union League frankly adopted, the League becoming the recognised agency for the promotion of trade unionism among women. The story of the way in which the League has grown from 66 women bookbinders, in 1874, to its present total of 185,000 affiliated members is interesting enough, but even more fascinating, if it could be told, would be the story of the change in public opinion fostered by the League and kindred societies, which, in its turn, has enormously strengthened and

helped the organisation of women workers. No longer do theorists contend that unregulated competition among women workers is good for trade, and with the recognition that women are a necessary factor in industry has come the corresponding admission that they are entitled to bargain collectively for their earnings with the employers in the most effective way.

Difficulties in the way of organising women now come from within rather than from without. During the last seven years the number of women trade unionists has nearly doubled, and it has not been the opposition of any section of public opinion, but the indifference of the women themselves which has militated against even greater success. This apathy is due (1) to the fact that many young women look upon their occupations as temporary and as mere preludes to marriage; (2) to their low wages, which often prevent them from paying even the small contribution demanded by the unions; (3) to the fact that they are apt to regard custom as law, and are slow to demand any betterment in their condition unless and until some action on the part of an employer arouses their resentment.

With these facts before us, it is not surprising that the total number of women trade unionists in 1907 was only 201,709, whereas the number of men trade unionists in the same year was 2,205,037. Of the total number of trade unionists in the country, 8.4 are women. At the Census of 1901 the number of women occupied in paid employment was given as 5,309,960, this including all professional women, all domestic servants, and all the 152,000 women engaged in agriculture. In 1907 there were no less than 504,821 women over eighteen employed in textile factories and 557,829 in non-textile factories

(see FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901). The total number of women trade unionists is thus only one-fifth of the number of women actually employed in factories. Women shop assistants and the employees of public authorities are trade unionists to the number of 5,076 and 4,690 respectively; and there is, in addition, a fair number of women trade unionists employed in workshops. Of the women employed in the textile or cotton, linen, woollen, jute, silk, and hosiery factories, rather more than one-third or 34 per cent. are in unions, while of the women employed in the non-textile factories, only 3.5 per cent. are organised. (The percentages in this paragraph are calculated from figures given on page XX of the "Board of Trade Report on Trade Unions.")

It will be seen that there is still plenty of work for the League to do, and in its endeavours to increase the ranks of women trade unionists and to augment its own numbers, the National Federation of Women Workers has included in its constitution a marriage dowry, which is to take the place of the death insurance in men's trade unions. In the event of the marriage of a girl who has been a full member for two years, and who has not received sick and out-of-work benefit during the period of her membership, the Central Council refund 50 per cent. of the amount of her contributions.

The affiliation fee charged by the League is 2s. 6d. for each 250 members, and for this payment the unions are entitled to have an annual visit from one of the League's organisers for a single meeting and for a week's organisation. When the notice of a strike among unorganised women workers reaches the League, an official at once proceeds to the locality and, if possible, acts as mediator between the workers in rebellion and

their employer. If desirable, it may assist—as in the case of the Cradley Heath chain-makers—in collecting subscriptions for the strikers. At any rate, a union is at once formed, and the women are taught the necessity of organisation.

Recently the League has been exceedingly active in endeavouring to mitigate the evils of lead poisoning (*q.v.*) among women workers in the Potteries, and in rousing public opinion to a knowledge of the evils caused by the use of lead in the manufacture of earthenware and china. It has also taken an active part in the formation of trade boards (*q.v.*) and in the exposure of sweated industries (*q.v.*).

Workers' Educational Association.—Some attempt has been made under such subjects as adult schools (*q.v.*), continuation schools (*q.v.*), and educational opportunities (*q.v.*), to denote some of the means available for the higher education of adults of the working classes. The object of the Workers' Educational Association is to co-ordinate these various efforts with the organisations of the workers. It endeavours, therefore, to arouse the interest of the workers and directs their attention to the existing facilities; to inquire into the needs and opinions of the workers, and represent them to the authorities; and to provide facilities for studies of interest to workers where the existing organisations have not met the need. In this direction the work of the Association has developed in the organisation of tutorial classes, which have been approved by the Board of Education (*q.v.*), encouraged by local education authorities (*q.v.*), and assisted by private bodies, such as the Gilchrist Trust (*q.v.*).

The Association maintains "that the tutorial class is a new educational experiment, dealing with teaching problems from a new point of view with a new type of student. It has

been said that in a tutorial class there are not one teacher and thirty students, but thirty-one students and thirty-one teachers. In this lies the difference between it and the classes of adolescents or technical classes. The success of the classes appears to be invariable. The statistics of them are remarkable." The tutorial classes are, in a measure, a development of the university extension lecture (*q.v.*). The idea is to establish them as working class centres under the management of workpeople, and that they should be under the direction of carefully selected university teachers, who would maintain their connection with the university. The chief distinction from the extension lectures is that the course for the tutorial class extends over two or three years, and that the teaching and essay writing are on a higher level. The Board of Education were so much impressed with the movement in the short period of the first three years of its existence, that they had a special report prepared and published in 1910. One feature of the classes which cannot fail to be noted by the observer is the remarkable keenness and enthusiasm of the workers, who oftentimes have to contend against great difficulties requiring considerable self-denial in pursuing their studies.

Workhouse Girls' Aid Committees.—(See also RESCUE WORK.) The object of the Workhouse Aid Committees is chiefly to consider the cases of young mothers who have forfeited their character, and to help those desirous of returning to a respectable life. There are two methods of beginning the work: The first and most simple, suited to a small workhouse, is that of inviting the guardians to appoint a lady visitor responsible to them for the work. The second method is that in which the guardians appoint a committee of about five to ten

ladies, of whom a majority should form the working committee, and the remainder, if possible, should be lady guardians or other officials for consultation. This, again, can only be arranged with the entire approval and help of the guardians, who will generally allow the board room to be used for the fortnightly meeting. Where some of the inmates are Roman Catholics, it is much to be desired that a lady of that Church be asked to advise the committee or to join them.

It is impossible to give suggestions which will be applicable to the visitor or ladies' committee in all cases. Each board of guardians has different arrangements for the lying-in wards and for the women there. One principle alone must guide the worker. She must act quite openly and cordially and loyally with the other officials of the workhouse, and it must be remembered that only the guardians can give permission to the visitor to have access to the infirmary on other than public visiting days. The master of the union has no power to give it.

In some workhouses the guardians always help the mother to affiliate the child; but in many this is much neglected. If the guardians themselves obtain the order, it must be remembered that it is not available to the mother of the child after it leaves the custody of the guardians. There are societies which give advice and help in securing affiliation orders under special circumstances. Amongst these societies may be mentioned: The Associated Societies for the Protection of Women and Children (*q.v.*), 60, Haymarket, London, W.); the Female Aid Society 117, Victoria Street, London, S.W.); and some of the vigilance societies.

Workhouse Masters.—The duties of the master are laid down in full in Article 208 of the Consolidated

Order of 1847. It was considered of great importance that the master and matron of a workhouse should be husband and wife; and the same Consolidated Order provides, in accordance with the recommendation of the Poor Law Commissioners of 1832 (see POOR LAW, HISTORY OF), that where master and matron were husband and wife, a vacancy in one office should vacate the other also. The master is the official head responsible for the care of all the inmates in the house; exercising supervision over the workshop, nursery, school, asylum, and hospital. It is a post of very great responsibility, and his administrative duties entail a large amount of book-keeping, as well as thought and consideration as to how best to utilize pauper labour at every opportunity, how most effectively to prevent waste, how best to maintain discipline among the inmates, and at the same time how best to carry out the various instructions of the guardians within the limits of the regulations prescribed by the central authority. He is expected to examine carefully and, if necessary, welcome suggested improvements coming either from the guardians or the inspectors of the central authority, rejecting, if he considers them inadvisable or detrimental to the welfare of the inmates, any ill-considered schemes of inexperienced guardians or newcomers.

The general recommendations of the Commissioners of 1909 (see POOR LAW REFORM) are that, when the general workhouse is abolished, each separate institution should be under the control of a superintendent, who is qualified by knowledge and experience for its management, and that the status and qualifications for the post should be raised. It is necessary that they should possess the highest moral qualities, and that the salary

offered should be sufficient to attract men of good organising power and of such personal character as shall best develop the capacities of those over whom they exercise control.

Workhouse Matrons.—The matron is the chief female officer of the workhouse, and as such is responsible for the control and discipline of the nursing staff and generally of the work on the female side. The best training that a matron can have is general nursing work in a hospital. Knowledge and experience on her side will prevent friction or undue interference with the work of the nursing staff; and on the nurse's side it should be a great encouragement and comfort to know that the matron has some practical knowledge of her duties and is ready to help her in any difficulty.

Discipline is best ensured by there being no divided responsibility or control; and the Local Government Board (*q.v.*) have wisely laid down in the General Consolidated Order of 1847 that, as far as possible, the Poor Law Commissioners' recommendations of 1832 should be enforced, and that the master and matron should be husband and wife. It is laid down that a vacancy in one should create a vacancy in the other post, *i.e.*, if the master dies or resigns, the matron *ipso facto* ceases to hold office. In some cases, guardians receive permission to reappoint her, but it is found by general experience that the management of the house often suffers in consequence, and that the two offices should be held together by husband and wife. The matron's duties are laid down in full in Art. 210 of the General Consolidated Order. Briefly, they are to care for and superintend the women and children; to see to the washing and mending, etc., of the linen and clothing; and to assist the master

in the general superintendence of the female side of the house.

Workhouses.—(See also INDOOR RELIEF.) It was never intended that the workhouse should be the "miscellaneous institution as we know it to-day." It was intended to be a place where the able-bodied (*q.v.*) might be set to work under certain conditions, and to be a deterrent rather than an attractive factor in the problem of relief. All workhouses have to conform to details issued in the regulations of the Local Government Board (*q.v.*), but so much depends upon the temperament of the master and matron; on the policy of the guardians (*q.v.*); and on the fashion of the building itself, that no two institutions may be in any sense of the word alike. The Poor Law Commissioners of 1909 reported a very grave condition of affairs existing in many of the workhouses, and that under no circumstances can the present general or mixed workhouse be satisfactory. It has ceased in many places to be a test of destitution, and there is little or no regenerative influence exercised within its walls. Certain powers of detention belong to guardians, but as a general rule destitute persons can enter or leave the house when they choose (see INS AND OUTS), thereby creating difficulties with regard to discipline and curative treatment.

A complete workhouse usually comprises the following distinct buildings: Receiving wards for both sexes; wards for the aged and infirm (male and female); wards for the able-bodied (male and female), and where there is no separate infirmary, wards for the sick, harmless lunatics and imbeciles, and isolation wards. There is also a nursery and wards for children, together with accommodation for aged married couples, and in some unions casual wards (*q.v.*).

There is also adequate accommodation for the staff. Under the Children Act, 1908 (see CHILDREN'S CHARTER), a board of guardians is empowered to allow the police the use of the workhouse as a place of detention for children and young people under sixteen awaiting trial or under remand, subject to the consent of the Local Government Board; but in London, on March 31, 1910, the remand homes (*q.v.*) provided by the Metropolitan Asylum Board were transferred to the London County Council (*q.v.*).

No structural alteration can be made in a workhouse without the sanction of the Local Government Board. Admission to the workhouse is under order of the guardians or of a relieving officer (*q.v.*), an overseer (*q.v.*), or by the gate-porter acting under the order of the master. From Lady Day to Michaelmas the inmates, except the sick, infirm, insane, and children under seven, rise about 5.45 a.m., breakfast at 6.30, work from 7 to 12, dine between 12 and 1, work from 1 to 6 p.m., have supper between 6 and 7 p.m., and go to bed at 8. During the remainder of the year they rise and breakfast an hour later, and begin work at 8 instead of 7. Guardians, however, make their own timetables. The master has power to grant temporary leave of absence, and at the discretion of the guardians men are sometimes allowed out to "look for work." Power is also given to the guardians to pay for the conveyance of an inmate to any other specified institution for the purpose of visiting a husband, wife, child, or other relative. Labour tasks in the workhouse generally consist of oakum picking, stone-breaking, and stone pounding, wood-chopping and sawing, corn-grinding, and in some cases digging; while many of the inmates in a large institution are

employed in the necessary work of the laundry, kitchen, scrubbing and cleaning, etc.; but no pauper inmate is to be employed as a nurse. Spirituous liquors are not allowed except on the recommendation of the medical officer.

The diet is according to prescribed dietary tables, and every inmate is entitled to have his portion weighed. The master is responsible for the maintenance of discipline, and can punish refractory or disorderly conduct by keeping the offender on bread and water, or by placing him in solitary confinement. Each punishment must be recorded in a book and reported to the Board. The medical officer is primarily responsible for the sanitary arrangements.

The guardians are to appoint visiting committees from their own members, who are to visit the workhouse, see the reports of the chaplain and medical officer, examine the stores, and hear of necessary complaints from inmates. In the visitors' book, certain definite questions are to be answered.

Where the infirmary is not under separate administration, and a large staff of qualified and trained nurses is necessary, it is evident that it is important that the matron should be a duly qualified nurse; but the nurses are responsible to the medical officer for the treatment of the sick, while in other matters they are responsible to the master and matron (see WORKHOUSE MASTERS and WORKHOUSE MATRONS). Much good work is done by lady visitors authorised to visit and care for the inmates by the guardians (see also BRABAZON EMPLOYMENT SOCIETY).

Working Boys' Homes.—(See BOYS' HOMES.)

Working Men's Club and Institute Union.—The Union was formed, in 1862, "for the purpose of helping working men to establish clubs or

institutes where they can meet for conversation, business, and mental improvement, with the means of recreation and refreshment, free from intoxicating drinks; these clubs, at the same time, constituting societies for mutual helpfulness in various ways." The underlying idea was that the efforts which had been made by means of mechanics' institutes and other organisations for the education of the working classes were not sufficient, but that something was needed definitely for their recreation and amusement as a counter attraction to the public-house. The council did not absolutely forbid the affiliated clubs to consume intoxicating liquors, but earnestly recommended their exclusion. The addition of the word "Institute" signified that the Union was fully in sympathy with the educational efforts supplemented by its formation. The clubs were to be managed by the members themselves, and besides providing opportunities for recreation and self-improvement, were to afford occasional facilities for members to be joined by their wives and daughters. Boys under eighteen were not admitted. The club was to be not merely a place to which men may go, but a society to which they should belong. The guiding principle through the whole is a desire for mutual helpfulness for the culture, advancement, and enjoyment of all the members. It was not long, however, before the rigid rule advocated at first was modified, and it was decided to approve the sale of beer at a bar in the entrance of the club, since it was found that otherwise the clubs failed to reach just those whom it desired to include as members, though the higher standard has been maintained by the Social Institutes' Union (*q.v.*). In the course of nearly fifty years the activities of the Union have become firmly estab-

lished on a wide basis. Among other matters may be mentioned the maintenance of two convalescent homes and the organisation of a circulating library by means of book boxes. It has also encouraged the formation of glee parties and choirs. The Union has worked in sympathetic co-operation with the Workers' Educational Association (*q.v.*) and the British Institute of Social Service (*q.v.*). The Union has its own organ, the *Club and Institute Journal*, which, with the circulation of more than 30,000 copies, does much to encourage *esprit de corps* among the members, who total more than ten times that number.

Working Men's Clubs.—(See also SETTLEMENTS.) Institutions of many different kinds are included under the term "Working Men's Clubs." In London there is a wide distinction between the clubs which allow intoxicating drink to be sold and those that do not; also between those which are attached to a parish or church organisation and those which are conducted independently by the members themselves. To the parish churches the greater part of healthy club life amongst working men owes its origin, and some part of it is still closely related to a church or a mission; but by far the greater part and, at the present time, probably the more vigorous part, is now independent of control from outside. The head-quarters of working men's club life in London has been for some time the W. H. Smith Memorial Hall, 4, Portugal Street, Kingsway. This is the meeting ground of the Social Institutes' Union (*q.v.*), and the Federation of Working Men's Social Clubs, founded in 1886. This federation covers the whole of London. That part of the Metropolis lying north of the Thames is divided into five divisions, while there is one large

division — the southern — which covers everything south of the river, and has its head-quarters at Cambridge House, Camberwell. No federation club is allowed to sell intoxicating drink on its premises, nor to apply any kind of religious or political test to its members. The federation card admits the holder as a visitor to all federated clubs. Divisional athletic contests are held, and the indoor winter games' competitions are very popular. Besides these there are central competitions. The Social Institutes' Union (*q.v.*) also controls the much larger federation of clubs which apply no restrictions as to drink or politics. The drink question is important. It is obvious that in clubs whose subscriptions are only a few pence a week, the profits on the drink trade are the chief source of revenue, and are out of all proportion to the subscriptions. It is very easy for such clubs to degenerate rapidly into mere drinking resorts; a state to which several so-called political clubs have come. Most of the genuine clubs flourish as athletic institutions and centres for playing games. But there is often a lack of corporate feeling, and it would be a great gain if, besides being improved as centres of social intercourse, they could be induced to look upon the supplying of intellectual and educational advantages to their members as part of their reason for existence. This can now be conveniently arranged through the Workers' Education Association (*q.v.*). The feeling amongst club members is best where they have, more or less, grown up together, and a really satisfactory system of clubs would be organised by having well-managed boys' clubs, from which members could pass on to a men's club as they attain to a suitable age. In all men's clubs the members must learn club management them-

selves if club life is to be really healthy, but there is generally room on the committee for an adviser who will help in organisation. This is a branch of social work which members of University Settlements, and the like, are well able to perform. If it is done thoroughly and unobtrusively, it may go far towards making a club a real corporate success.

Workmen's Compensation. — Speaking generally, an employer is liable for injuries sustained by his servant whilst performing the duties for which the workman is under a contract of employment. Nearly every workman in the widest sense of that word, including seamen, clerks, and domestic servants, can call upon an employer for compensation should an injury be sustained in his service. The most important of the statutes on the subject, both in regard to the number of cases in which compensation can be claimed, and in the ease with which claims can be enforced, is the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906.

"Workman" means every person (male or female) who works for or is apprenticed to an employer. The work performed may be manual, clerical, or otherwise, but there are a few stated exceptions. It does not include a person who is being paid more than £250 a year for work which is not manual, nor a person employed in work of a casual nature which is not for the purposes of the employer's trade or business; *e.g.*, a window-cleaner occasionally engaged at a private residence would be outside the scope of the Act, but a charwoman who by a standing arrangement comes regularly once a week would be included, for the work would not be casual; nor a member of a police force, nor an outworker, nor a member of the employer's family dwelling in his house. Soldiers and

sailors in the service of the Crown are also expressly excluded, but not other Civil servants and Government workmen. In every case the relation of master and servant must exist. An independent contractor, (*i.e.*, one who undertakes to produce a given result, but so that in the actual execution of the work he is not under the order or control of the person for whom he does it, is outside the scope of the Act.

Compensation is payable: (1) When the workman sustains a personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment. "Accident" has been given a wide interpretation, and has been held to include cases of injury which would not have occurred had the workman been in a normally healthy condition. To bring an accident within the scope of the Act, it must have happened both as a consequence of and during the employment for which the workman has been engaged. In some cases it has been judicially decided that this includes going to and from work. Some degree of carelessness on the part of the workman will not vitiate the claim; but serious and wilful misconduct to which the accident must be attributed will destroy any claim to compensation, unless the injury results in death or permanent disablement.

(2) When the workman is certified to be suffering from any of certain industrial diseases (*q.v.*) (*e.g.*, lead poisoning, anthrax, etc.), and consequently is unable to earn full wages, or under the Factory Acts (*q.v.*) has been suspended from his employment, or where death has resulted from such a disease due to the nature of the employment, then, with certain restrictions, the disease will be regarded in the same way as an accident under the Act.

Notice of the Accident, stating

briefly the cause of the injury and the name and address of the incapacitated worker must be given to the employer as soon as practicable; and, in any case, a claim to be valid must be made within six months of the accident, or, if it prove fatal, of the date of death. It is advisable that it should be in writing, but a verbal notice is legally sufficient.

When the accident is fatal, a workman's family, if they have been totally dependent on his wages, can claim a sum equal to his earnings for the preceding three years in the service of the same employer; or, if his employment has not lasted for three years, 156 times his average weekly wages during the period of his employment. But in any case it shall not be less than £150 or more than £300.

Where the dependents were not wholly dependent on the workman's earnings, the sum will be proportionately reduced, and if there are no dependents at all, the employer will merely be liable for the reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial up to £10.

In cases of total or partial incapacity, no compensation at all is payable unless the workman is incapacitated for at least one week. If the disablement lasts less than a fortnight, nothing is to be paid for the first week. If the injury prevents a man from working for more than a fortnight, then he is entitled to a weekly payment for the whole period of his incapacity amounting to 50 per cent. of his average weekly earnings previous to the accident, the maximum, however, being fixed at £1 per week. In the case of an employee under twenty-one years of age, the weekly payment is to be his full wages if these were less than 10s. a week, and 10s. per week if the wages were not more than £1.

In computing average weekly earnings, perquisites (*e.g.*, "tips"), or board and lodgings, may be taken into account.

After a weekly payment has continued for six months, it is open to the employer (but the workman cannot force him to do it) to substitute for further payments a lump sum of such an amount as would, if the injury were permanent, provide the workman with an annuity equivalent to three-fourths of the annual value of the weekly payment; but if the injury is unlikely to be permanent an arbitrator has a free and unfettered discretion to decide what under all the circumstances would be a reasonable amount. When both parties are willing, an agreement to redeem possible future weekly payments by a lump sum may be carried through at any time, but not until the end of the six months can the employer force an unwilling workman to come to such an agreement.

Great caution should be exercised by workmen before signing any agreement to compound with an employer or insurance company for the settlement of their claims; and, generally speaking, it will be well to take experienced advice before accepting a lump sum in lieu of future payments (see *POOR MAN'S LAWYER*). Ten pounds or so may seem a large sum to a man who has lived from hand to mouth on a small weekly wage, but frequently it is a poor exchange for the compensation to which he may be entitled on account of a permanent diminution in his earning capacity. In the majority of cases it will be found inadvisable to agree to a permanent settlement until the expiration of the six months, during which, failing agreement, a weekly sum may be given.

In cases of partial incapacity, if at any time during which a workman is receiving weekly payments

under the Act, his earning capacity changes so that he is able to earn more or less, an arbitrator may vary the amount he receives weekly.

In case of death, payment of compensation is to be made to the registrar of the county court, and the court may deal with it in such manner as it deems most beneficial to the persons entitled.

An employer may require an injured workman to submit to medical examination by a doctor provided and paid for by the employer, in order to determine whether or not the workman is fit to return to his employment.

If the parties fail to agree on any point, an arbitrator is to be appointed, if possible, by mutual agreement. If this is impossible, the county court judge acts in this capacity.

When any matter has been decided by agreement or by an arbitrator, a memorandum should be sent to the registrar of the county court, who will record it without fee. It can then be enforced in the same way as a county court judgment.

It should be observed that the Workmen's Compensation Act did not repeal the Employers' Liability Act, 1880. Consequently, in cases which come within the earlier Act, the workman will have to elect under which Act he will take action. Having selected one remedy, the other is closed to him; and as the procedure under the Workmen's Compensation Act, as described above, is much simpler, and the scope of that Act much wider than that of the Employers' Liability Act, in most cases it will be inadvisable, without professional advice, to neglect the safer method for one which may, or may not, prove more remunerative. The Employers' Liability Act applies to railwaymen, labourers, journeymen

artificers, miners, or persons otherwise engaged in manual labour for an employer. Domestic or menial servants are not included. Compensation is payable where a workman sustains personal injury which, speaking generally, has been caused by the negligence of the employer, or of some person entrusted with the duty of superintendence by him, or by reason of any act done or omission made in obedience to rules laid down by the employer, or authorised by him on the part either of the injured workman or of some other workman in the employer's service; or by reason of any negligence by any person in the employer's service who has charge of any signal, points, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway. A workman, however, is debarred from recovering compensation if he knew of the defect or negligence responsible for his injury, and failed to inform the employer or some person superior to himself in the employer's service, unless the workman was aware that the defect was already known to his superiors. Nor is the employer responsible if he can show that negligence on the workman's part was one of the causes contributory to the injury, or that the workman voluntarily took the risk from which the injury resulted. The compensation awarded cannot exceed three years' estimated earnings.

Written notice, containing the name and address of the injured workman and, in ordinary language, the date and cause of the injury, must be given to the employer within six weeks. The action for compensation must be brought in the county court within six months from the date of injury, or, where death has resulted, twelve months from the date of death.

Workmen's Insurance Abroad.—The Abstract of Foreign Labour statistics, published annually by

the Labour Department of the Board of Trade (*q.v.*), contains figures showing the leading characteristics and the growth of the different schemes introduced by legislative enactment in the principal foreign countries for insuring certain classes of the population against impoverishment arising from sickness, accidents sustained in the course of employment, and from infirmity and old age.

In the case of insurance against accident, as distinct from employers' liability legislation, the compulsory principle has been applied in Germany, Austria, Hungary, France, Italy, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Norway, Luxembourg, and Finland; but while in most of these countries the range of occupations subject to insurance is wide, comprising all the principal manufacturing industries, mines, and quarries, and transportation, in others it is restricted to one or two classes of employment. The extent to which the cost of insurance is borne by employers, workmen, and the State respectively varies in the different countries. Generally, compensation is paid for accidents of all kinds, sustained in the course of employment, except those intentionally caused. Free medical attendance is given almost invariably (Austria is an exception), but the scale of money payment differs greatly.

Insurance against sickness is compulsory in Germany, Hungary, and Luxembourg for industrial and commercial workpeople, and for works officials and clerks whose yearly earnings do not exceed a fixed amount (£100 in the first two countries and £120 in the third); in Austria for industrial workpeople generally; in Norway for wage-earners generally, with certain exemptions; in France for miners (in conjunction with infirmity insurance); and in Belgium for

miners and seamen. Agricultural labourers and domestic servants are excluded in all countries except Norway. The apportionment of the payment of the contributions between employers, workpeople, and the State varies for sickness insurance. The method adopted in the countries which have similar laws, except Germany, where insurance is effected by funds of seven kinds, is almost the same for each. The sick funds are formed on a mutual basis and are self-governing. In Germany, Norway, Austria, Hungary, and Luxemburg the minimum benefits include medical attendance and medicine during illness, surgical appliances if necessary, and sick pay, with special allowances to women in child-birth. In the event of death funeral money is paid to the relatives, the usual amount being twenty times the daily wages of the deceased. Higher benefits can be given for higher contributions.

Germany and France are the only countries which have adopted legislation for the compulsory insurance of the working classes generally (including agricultural labourers and domestic servants) against old age and infirmity. Other countries have, however, applied this principle to special classes of workers, as, for example, Austria, Hungary, and Belgium to miners; while State or other public subsidies outside the Poor Law are granted in aid of voluntary assistance or savings in France, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, and Spain. In Germany the cost of old age and infirmity pensions is borne by employers and workpeople in equal shares, but the Imperial Government makes a uniform annual addition of £2 10s. to every pension granted. For the purpose of fixing the amount of the contributions and pensions, the insured are divided into five classes, according to their wages, as calculated in several different ways—the usual

basis being 300 times the daily wage of the class of worker insured. An old age pension may be claimed by any worker who has completed his seventieth year and paid contributions for 1,200 weeks, whether or not he is unfit for work. An infirmity pension, on the other hand, may be claimed at any age by any worker who has paid contributions for 200 weeks, provided that he is unable to earn one-third of the current daily wages earned in his locality by persons of his own class and of normal capacity. Persons entitled to either pension must make their choice between them, and cannot draw both. The insurances are effected by territorial institutions, of which there are thirty-one for all Germany, and in ten special funds, organised for coal miners, railwaymen, seamen, and several other classes of employees.

The combined forms of insurance include the Austrian and Hungarian Miners' Provident Funds for insurance against accident, sickness, and old age; the French Miners' Relief Funds for insurance against sickness and infirmity; and the Belgian Miners' Relief Fund for insurance against accident, sickness, infirmity, and old age. Employers and workpeople contribute to these funds in different proportions, sharing equally in Austria and France, while in Belgium the State and provinces contribute. Pensions are granted to widows and orphans. In Belgium there is an insurance fund for seamen to meet the contingencies of accident, sickness, and old age.

Workmen's National Housing Council.—This Council was founded in 1898 to induce the municipal authorities to provide good houses for the people at cost rents, and to urge the Government to lend money below the market rate of interest, in order to keep down rents of such houses for the very poor.

The membership is almost entirely composed of trade unions (*q.v.*), and especially those favouring an advanced policy in the London districts, where its operations have been most active.

In conjunction with the National Housing and Town Planning Council (*q.v.*), the Society organises a Housing Conference at the annual meeting of the Trades Union Congress.

Secretary, Frederick Knee, 41, Cowcross Street, E.C.

Workmen's Trains.—(See CHEAP TRAINS.)

Workshops.—(See FACTORIES, HEALTH PRECAUTIONS IN; FACTORY LEGISLATION; and FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Worsted Manufacture.—(See TRADES FOR BOYS.)

Wrongful Distress.—(See LANDLORD AND TENANT.)

Young Men's Christian Association.—The Y.M.C.A., as it is more familiarly known, was founded by Mr., afterwards Sir, George Williams in a room of a business establishment in St. Paul's Churchyard, London, E.C., in June, 1844. The primary object was the promotion of the spiritual welfare of young men by the introduction of religious meetings (Bible classes, prayer meetings, etc.) in the houses of business in the centre of London. The Y.M.C.A. is now recognised to be, not an institution, but an association, which seeks to unite young men desirous of encouraging and helping each other in the development of true manhood. Recognising man's Divine nature—spirit, mind, and body—it seeks to promote the spiritual, social, intellectual, and physical welfare of its members and associates. The Association is not connected with any particular religious body, but claims to be inter-denominational. The first evening educational classes

were formed in 1849, and now constitute an important branch of the work. Instruction may be obtained upon the various subjects likely to be useful to the members in their several occupations. Forms of application for membership can be obtained from the Secretary of any centre. The fees are as follows: 15 to 20 years of age, 5s. per annum; 20 to 30 years, 10s. per annum; above 30 years, 15s. The growth of the Association has been continuous, involving the acquisition of larger central premises. For many years the head-quarters were in Exeter Hall, until its demolition in 1907. The large new building was erected for the purpose in Tottenham Court Road in 1911, and forms a worthy centre of what is now a world-wide organisation.

Young Persons in Factories.—(See FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.)

Young Women's Christian Association.—(See also GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY.) Head quarters: 26, George Street, Hanover Square, London, W. The Association, founded in 1855, seeks to promote the spiritual, intellectual, social, and physical welfare of young women of all denominations. There are *Homes* (residential and holiday) all over the country; also club rooms open daily, in which are held classes and lectures of various kinds; restaurants, noon rest rooms, etc.

The Social Service Council provides a bureau for information on social and industrial questions touching the welfare of girls, and includes departments for employment, emigration (see COLONISATION), thrift (*q.v.*), convalescent and holiday clubs, total abstinence, working girls' clubs (*q.v.*).

There are also special departments for teachers, nurses, girls of leisure, juniors.

Publications are *Our Outlook* (official organ), *Teachers' Quarterly*;

Links (for nurses); *Advance* (for juniors); *Glimpses of the East* (foreign department quarterly), *World's Quarterly*, etc.

The membership of the local Associations may be as follows: 1. *General*. (a) Prayer Union. ("Any young woman who desires to dedicate herself to the service of our Lord Jesus Christ in daily life, and to work and pray for others, may become a Prayer Union (active) member"); (b) Associate. ("Any young woman who wishes to enjoy the benefits of a Christian Associa-

tion may become an associate member"). 2. *Special*. (a) Juniors (girls under fourteen years of age); (b) teachers; (c) nurses; (d) guild of helpers (girls of leisure); (e) blind (in connection with the latter there is a Braille library—the monthly letter to members also being brought out in Braille type). The membership in Great Britain and Ireland in 1909 was 102,710.

In connection with the employment department, there is at headquarters a registry for foreign girls in Great Britain.

THE END

[Catalogue O]

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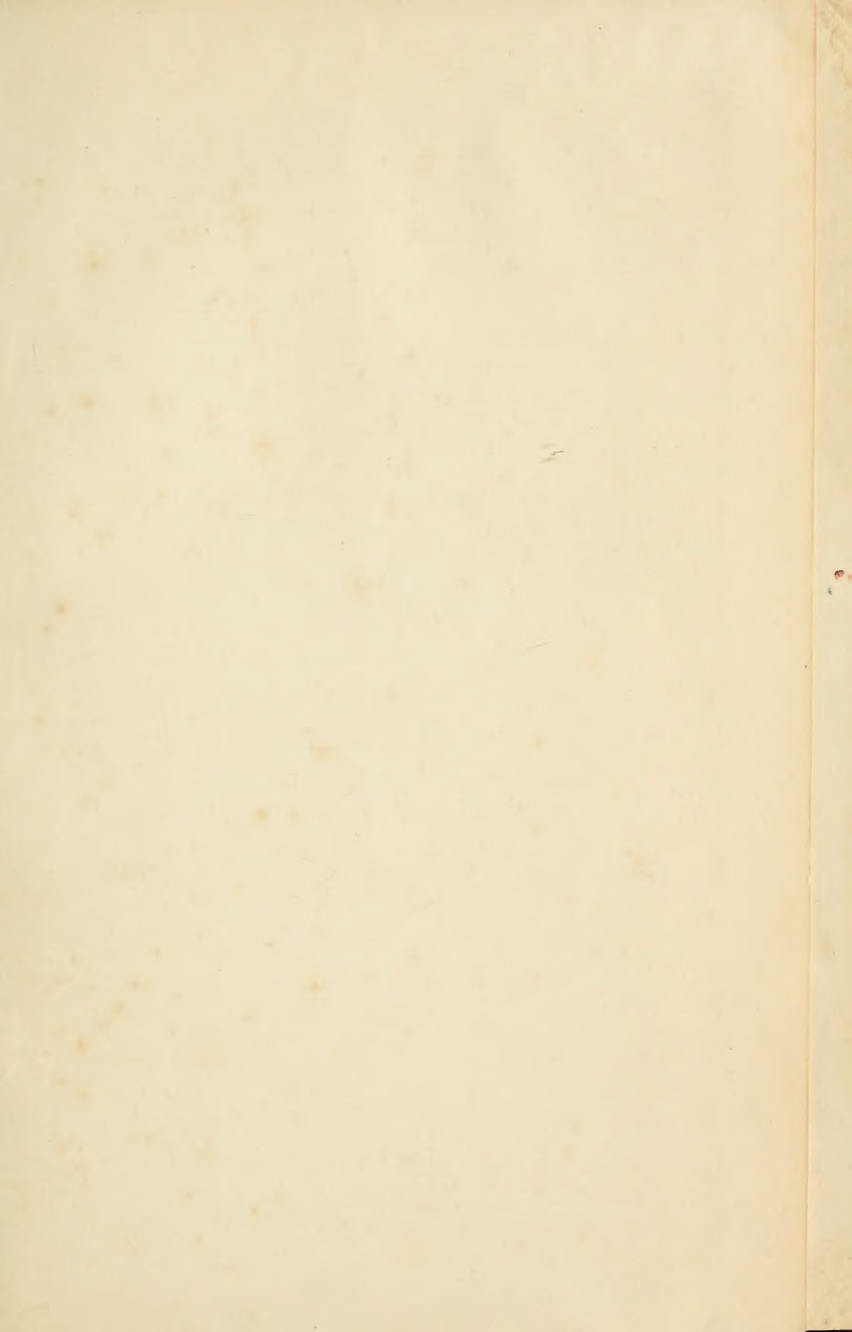
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